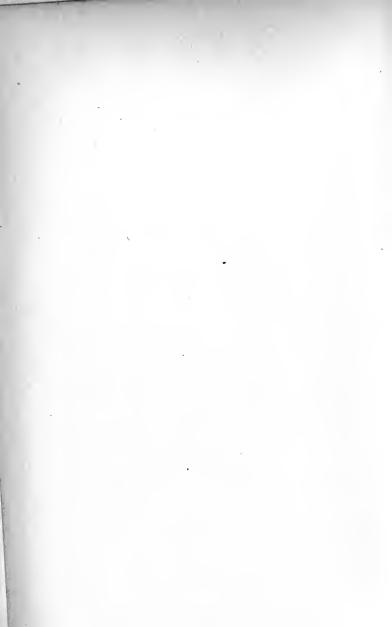


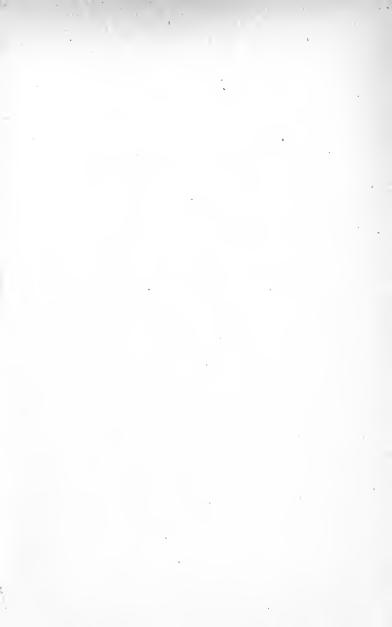


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LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

ALBERT HARKNESS, Ph. D., LL. D.,
PROFESSOR IN BROWN UNIVERSITY.

REVISED STANDARD EDITION.

NEW YORK :: CINCINNATI :: CHICAGO: AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY.

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HARK. LAT. GRAM

W. P. 16

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PREFACE

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

The last quarter of a century has revealed many important facts in the development of language. During this period philological research has thrown new light upon Latin forms and inflections, upon the laws of phonetic change, upon the use of cases, moods, and tenses, and upon the origin and history of numerous constructions. The student of Latin grammar is now entitled to the full benefit of the important practical results which these labors in the field of linguistic study have brought within the proper sphere of the school. In securing this advantage, however, care must be taken not to divert the attention of the learner from the one object before him—the attainment of a full and accurate knowledge of the language.

The volume now offered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of the work in its present form is threefold.

1. It is designed to present a clear, simple, and convenient outline of Latin grammar for the beginner. It

accordingly contains, in large type, a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the language, exhibiting not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those vital principles which underlie, control, and explain them. The laws of construction are put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference, and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after having been separately discussed, are collected in a body at the close of the Syntax. Topics which require the fullest illustration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are explained in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting, it is believed, a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner impossible under any other treatment.

- 2. It is intended to be an adequate and trustworthy grammar for the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness of phraseology, and by compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, an ample collection of the most important grammatical facts, intended for reference, has been compressed within the limits of a convenient manual. Care has been taken to explain and illustrate, with the requisite fullness, all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood and the Indirect Discourse have received special attention.
- 3. In a series of foot-notes it aims to bring within the reach of the student some of the more important results of recent linguistic research. Brief explanations are given of the working of phonetic laws, of the nature of inflection, of the origin of special idioms, and of various facts in the growth of language. But the distinguishing feature of this part of the work consists in the abundant

references which are made to some of the latest and best authorities upon the numerous linguistic questions naturally suggested by the study of Latin grammar.¹

An attempt has been made to indicate, as far as practicable, the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant.²

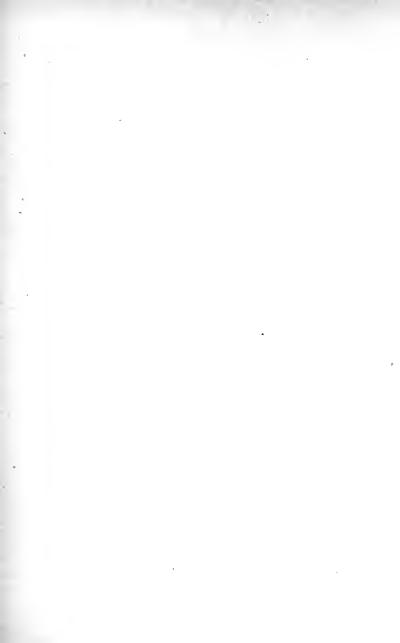
With this brief statement of its design and plan, this volume is now respectfully committed to the hands of classical teachers.

In conclusion the author is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous friends who have favored him with valuable suggestions.

2 See page 4, foot-note 4; also page 9, note 3.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., July, 1881.

¹See page xv. It is hardly necessary to add that an acquaintance with the authorities here cited is by no means to be regarded as an indispensable qualification for the work of classical instruction. The references are intended especially for those who adopt the historical method in the study of language.



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LATIN GRAMMAR.

1. LATIN GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:

I. ORTHOGRAPHY, which treats of the letters and sounds

of the language.

II. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.

III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.

IV. PROSODY, which treats of quantity and versification.

PART FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of w.

 $^{^1}$ The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cumae. In its original form it contained twenty-one letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, X, Z. C was a modification of the Greek gamma, and F of the digamma. Q was the Greek koppa, which early disappeared from the Greek alphabet. C had the sound afterward denoted by g; K, the sound afterward denoted by c. Z early disappeared from the Latin alphabet, but was subsequently restored, though only in foreign words. Throughout the classical period only capital letters were used. On the Alphabet, see Whitney, pp. 59-70: Papillon. pp 28-48: Wordsworth, pp. 5-10; Roby, 1., pp. 21-62; Slevers, pp. 24-105; Corssen, I., pp. 1-346; Kühner, I., pp. 35-49.

- 1. C in the fourth century B. c. supplied the place both of C and of G.
- 2. G, introduced in the third century B. c., was formed from C by simply changing the lower part of that letter.
- 3. Even in the classical period the original form C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C stands for $G\bar{a}ius$, Cn. for Gnaeus, See 649.
- 4. J, j, modifications of I, i, introduced in the seventeenth century of our era to distinguish the consonant I, i from the vowel I, i, are rejected by many recent editors, but retained by others.
- 5. The letters u and v, originally designated by the character V, are now used in the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant.
- 6. In classical Latin, k is seldom used, and y and z occur only in foreign words, chiefly in those derived from the Greek.
- 3. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants, and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

² Originally V, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of U, u and V, v, but it was subsequently modified to U.

³ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus $\dot{\epsilon}$, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as ee, is a vowel; but, combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of $y : e' - \bar{\imath}$ ($\dot{a}' - ee$, vowel), $\dot{e}' - \dot{\jmath}us$ ($\dot{a}' - yus$, consonant, almost identical in sound with $\dot{a}' - ee - us$).

⁴ In pronouncing the open vowel a as in father, the vocal organs are fully open. By gradually contracting them at one point and another we produce in succession the medial vowels, the close vowels, the semivowels, the nasals, the aspirate, the fricatives, and finally the mutes, in pronouncing which the closure of the vocal organs becomes complete

⁵ E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close i, o a medial vowel between the open a and the close u; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial; y was introduced from the Greek. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme.

¹ Throughout the classical period, I, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of I, I and J, J. As practical convenience has, however, already sanctioned the use of I, I, and I, characters unknown to the ancient Romans, may it not also justify the use of I, I in educational works, especially as the Romans themselves attempted to find a suitable modification of I to designate this consonant?

II. CONSONANTS.

				GUTTURALS.	DENTALS.	LABIALS
1. Semivowels, sonant	3			\mathbf{i} or $\mathbf{j} = y$		$\mathbf{v} = w$
2. NASALS, sonant				n 1	n	m
3. ASPIRATE, surd .				h		
4. FRICATIVES, comprising						
1. Liquids, sonant .					1, r	
2. Spirants, surd						f
b. Mutes, comprising						
1. Sonant Mutes .				g	đ	b
2. Surd Mutes .				c, k, q	t	р

Note 1 .- Observe that the consonants are divided,

- I. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production, into
 - 1. Gutturals—throat letters, also called Palatals;
 - 2. Dentals teeth letters, also called Linguals;
 - 3. Labials-lip letters.
 - II. According to the MANNER in which they are uttered, into
 - 1. Sonants, or voiced letters;
 - 2. Surds, or voiceless letters.2

Note 2.—X = cs, and z = ds, are double consonants, formed by the union of a mute with the spirant s.

4. DIPHTHONGS are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable.

Note.—The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu. Ei, oi, and ui are rare.4

ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.

5. Vowels.—The vowel sounds are the following:

 $^{^1}$ With the sound of n in $concord,\ linger. It occurs before gutturals: <math display="inline">congr\dot{e}ssus,$ meeting.

² The distinction between a *sonant* and a *surd* will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad. B is vocalized, p is not.

³ X often represents the union of g and s, but in such cases g is probably first assimilated to c; see 30, 33, 1.

⁴ Proper diphthongs were formed originally by the union of an open or medial vowel, a. e, or o, with a close vowel, i or u, as ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou. An improper diphthong was also formed by the union of the two close vowels, as ui. For the weakening of these original diphthongs, see 23, note.

In this country three distinct methods are recognized in the pronunciation of Latin. They are generally known as the *Roman*, the *English*, and the *Continental Methods*. The researches of Corssen and others have revealed laws of phonetic change of great value in tracing the history of Latin words. Accordingly, whatever method of prenunciation may be adopted for actual use in the class-room, the pupil should sooner or later be made familiar with the leading features of the Roman Method, which is at least an approximation to the ancient pronunciation of the language.

				Long.		SHORT.								
ā	like	ä	in	father:	a' -ris. 1	a	like	а	in	Cuba:8	a'-mer.			
ē	66	e	"	prey:2	\bar{e}' - $d\bar{\imath}$.	е	"	e	"	net:	re'-get.			
ī	"	ï	"	machine:2	ī'-rī.	i	"	i	"	cigar:	vi'-det.			
ð	44	ō	"	old:	ō'-rās.	o	44	0	"	obey:	mo'-net.			
ō	"	24	"	ruale:2	\bar{u}' - $n\delta$.	u	44	и	"	full:	su'-mus,			

- 1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sunt, u as in sum. su'-mus. But see 16, note 2.
- 2. Y, found only in Greek words, is in sound intermediate between the Latin i and u, similar to the French u and the German $\ddot{u} \cdot N\ddot{y} sa$
- 3. I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vower, is a semivowel with the sound of y in yet (7): $A-ch\bar{a}$ -ia (\ddot{A} - $k\ddot{a}$ '- $y\ddot{a}$).
- 4. \mathbf{U}^s in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of $w \cdot qu\bar{u}$ (kwė), lin'-qua (lin'-gwä), $su\bar{a}'$ -sit (swä'-sit).
- 6. DIPHTHONES.—In diphthongs each vowel retains its own sound:

- 1. Et as in veil, eu with the sound. of and u combined, and of so, occur in a few words: dein, neu-ter, proin.
- 7. Consonants. Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

o like
$$k$$
 in king: $c\bar{e}'$ - $l\bar{e}s$ (kay-lace), $c\bar{\imath}'$ - $v\bar{\imath}$ (kē-wē).
g " g " get: re' - $gunt$, re' - gis , ge' - nus .

¹ The Latin vowels marked with the sign are long in quantity, i. e., in the duration of the sound (16); those not marked are short in quantity; see 16, note 8,

² Or \tilde{e} like \tilde{a} in made, \tilde{i} like \tilde{e} in me, and \tilde{n} like oo in moon.

³ The short vowels can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. In theory they have the same sounds as the corresponding long vowels, but occupy only half as much time in utterance.

[•] Observe the difference between the *length* or *quantity* of the vowel and the *length* or *quantity* of the syllable. Here the vowel u is short, but the syllable sunt is long; see 16, I. In syllables iong irrespective of the length of the vowels contained in them, it is often difficult and sometimes absolutely impossible to determine the *natural quantity* of the vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short in all situations where there are not good reasons for believing them to be long.

⁵ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant, and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p 50; Peile, p. 383; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

⁶ Combining the sounds of a and i.

When pronounced as monosyllables in poetry (608, 111.); otherwise as dissyllables de'-in, pro'-in.

j like y in yet: jū'-stum (yoo-stum), ja'-cet.

8 " s " son: sa'-cer, so'-ror, A'-si-a.

t " t " time: ti'-mor, tō'-tus, āc'-ti-ŏ.

▼ " w " we: va'-dum, vī'-cī, vi'-ti-um.1

Note.—Before s and t. b has the sound of p:urbs, sub'-ter, pronounced urps, sup'-ter.² Ch has the sound of k:cho'-rus (ko'-rus).

- 8. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables,
- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: $m\ddot{o}'$ -re, per-su \ddot{a}' -d \ddot{e} , $m\ddot{e}n'$ -sae.
- 2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced at the beginning of a word or syllable: ² pa'-ter, pa'-trēs, ge'-ne-rī, do'-mi-nus, nō'-scit, si'-stis, clau'-stra, mēn'-sa, bel'-lum, tem'-plum, emp'-tus. But—
- 3. Compound words must be separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant: ab'-es, ob-\(\bar{v}\)'-re.

ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.4

- 9. Vowels.—Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds.
- 10. Long Sounds.—Vowels have their long English sounds—a as in fate, e in mete, i in pine, o in note, u in tube, y in type—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a vowel:

Se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong:

De'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ae, di-e'-i, ni'-hi-lum.6

² On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see p. 17, foot-note 1.

¹ There is some uncertainty in regard to the sound of v. Corssen gives it at the beginning of a word the sound of the English v, in all other situations the sound of w.

³ By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mnis, t'-pse. Roby, on the contrary, thinks that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it.

Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they pronounce their own languages. Accordingly in England and in this country the English Method has in general prevailed, though of late the Roman pronunciation has gained favor in many quarters.

⁵ These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them. Thus, before r, when final, or followed by another consonant, ϵ , ϵ , and u are scarcely distinguishable, while a and o are pronounced as in far, for. Between qu and dr, or rt, a approaches the sound of o: quartus, as in quarter.

In these rules no account is taken of the aspirate h: hence the first i in nihilum is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, ch, ph, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athor and Othrys.

3. In penultimate' syllables before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Pa'-ter, pa'-tres, ho-no'-ris, A'-thos, O'-thrys.

4. In unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Do-lo'-ris, cor'-po-ri, con'-su-lis, a-gric'-o-la.

- 1) A unaccented, except before consonants in final syllables (11, 1), has the sound of a final in America: men'-sa, a-cu'-tus, a-ma'-mus.²
- 2) I and y unaccented, in any syllable except the first and last, generally have the short sound: nob'-i-lis (nob'-e-lis), Am'-y-cus (Am'-e-cus).
- 3) I preceded by an accented a, c, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel ³ with the sound of y in yet: A-cha'-ia (A-ka'-ya), Pom-pe'-ius (Pom-pe'-yus), La-to'-ia (La-to'-ya), Har-py'-ia (Har-py'-ya).
- 4) **U** has the short sound before bl, and the other vowels before gl and tl: Pub-lic'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At'-las.
- 5) U^4 in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of w: qui (kwi), qua; lin'-gua (lin'-gua), lin'-gui); sua'-de-o (swa'-de-o).
- 6) COMPOUND WORDS.—When the first part of a compound is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: a in ab'-es, e in red'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (11, 1), retain that sound in compounds: post'-quam, hos'-ce. E'-ti-am and quo'-ni-am are generally pronounced as simple words.
- 11. Short Sounds.—Vowels have their short English sounds—a as in fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a consonant:

A'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys; except post, es final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'gros.

2. In all syllables before x, or any two consonants except a mute followed by a liquid (10, 3 and 4):

Rex'-it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'-rum.

¹ Penultimate, the last syilable but one.

² Some give the same sound to a final in monosyllables: da, qua; while others give it the long sound according to 10, 1.

³ Sometimes written j.

⁴ This is sometimes called the parasitic u_i as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peilo, p. 883; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

^{*} Etiam is compounded of et and jam; quoniam, of quom = quum, cum, and jam

3. In all accented syllables, not penultimate, before one or more consonants:

Dom'-i-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But-

- 1) A, e, or o before a single consonant (or a mute and a liquid), followed by e, i, or y before another vowel, has the long sound: a'-ci-es, a'-cri-a, me'-re-o, do'-ce-o.
- 2) U, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute and a liquid, except bl, has the long sound: Pu'-ni-cus, sa-lu'-bri-tas.
 - 3) Compounds; see 10, 6).
- 12. DIPHTHONGS.—Diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

Ae like e: Cae'-sar, Daed'-a-lus.\(^1\) Au as in author: au'-rum.

Oe like e: Oe'-ta, Oed'-i-pus.\(^1\) Eu as in neuter: neu'-ter.

- 1. Ei and oi are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pronounced as in height, coin: hei, proin; see Synaeresis, 608, III.
 - 2. Ui, as a diphthong with the long sound of i, occurs in cui, hui, huic.
- 13. Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced in general as in English. Thus—
- I. C and G are soft (like s and j) before e, i, y, ae, and oe, and hard in other situations: ce'-do (se'-do), ci'-vis, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-pi, a'-ge (a'-je), a'-gi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'-go, cum, Ga'-des. But
 - 1. C has the sound of sh-
- 1) Before *i* preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel: *so'-ci-us (so'-she-us);
- 2) Before eu and yo preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-y-on).
 - 2. Ch is hard like k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus), Chi'-os (Ki'-os).
 - 3. G has the soft sound before g soft: ag'-ger.
- II. S, T, and X are generally pronounced as in the English words son, time, expect: sa'-cer, ti'-mor, rex'-i (rek'-si). But—
- 1. S, T, and X are aspirated before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel—s and t taking the sound of sh, and x that of ksh: Al'-si-um (Al'-she-um), ar'-ti-um (ar'-she-um), anx'-i-us (ank'-she-us). But
- T loses the aspirate—(1) after s, t, or \(\alpha\): Os'-ti-a, At'-ti-us, mix'-ti-o; (2) in old infinitives in ier: flec'-ti-er; (3) generally in proper names in tion (tyon): Phi-tis'-ti-on, Am-phic'-ty-on.

¹ The diphthong has the long sound in Cae'-sar and Oe'-ta, according to 10, 3, but the short sound in Daed'-a-lus (Ded'-a-lus) and Oed'-i-pus (Ed'-i-pus), according to 11, 3, as e would be thus pronounced in the same situations.

2. S is pronounced like z-

1) At the end of a word, after e, ae, au, b, m, n, r: spes, prace aus, urbs, hi-ema mons, pars;

In a few words after the analogy of the corresponding English words: Cae'-sas.
 Caesar; cau'-sa, cause; mu'-sa, muse; mi'-ser, miser, miserable, etc.

- 3. X at the beginning of a word has the sound of z: Xan'-thus.
- 14. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables—
- Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mo'-re, per-sua'-de, men'-sae.
- 2. Distribute the consonants so as to give the proper sound to each vowel and diphthong, as determined by previous rules (10-12): pa'-ter, pa'-tres, a-gro'-rum, au-di'-vi; gen'-e-ri, dom'-i-nus; bel'-lum, pat'-ri-bus; emp'-tus, tem'-plum; rex'-i, anx'-i-us; post'-quam, hos'-ce.\frac{1}{2}

CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.3

- 15. For the Continental Method, as adopted in this country, take—
 - 1. The Roman pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs; see 5 and 6.
 - 2. The English pronunciation of the consonants; * see 13.
 - 3. The Roman division of words into syllables; see 8.

QUANTITY.

- 16. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.
 - I. Long.—A syllable is long in quantity—
 - 1. If it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: haec, res.

¹ Observe that compound words are separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant (10, 4, 6), as post'-quam; that in other cases, after a vowel with a long sound, consonants are joined to the following syliable, as in the first four examples, pa'-ter, etc., and that, after a vowel with a short sound, a single consonant is joined to such vowel, as in gen'-e-ri and dom'-i-nus: that two consonants are separated, as in bel'-lum, etc.; that of three or four consonants, the last, or, if a mute and a liquid, the last two, are joined to the following syllable, as in emp'-lus, etc., but that the double consonant x is joined to the preceding vowel, as in rex'-i, anx'-i-us.

² Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the Continent of Europe has its own method.

⁹ Though the pronunciation of the consonanta varies somewhat in different institutions.

⁴ Common—i e., sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity se-Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

⁵ See note 3 below.

- 2. If its vowel is followed by x or z, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: dux, $r\bar{e}x$, sunt.
- II. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate $h: di'-\bar{e}s, vi'-ae, ni'-hil$.
- III. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'- $gr\bar{\imath}$.

Note 1.—Vowels are also in quantity either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable.³

Note 2.—Vowels are long before ns. nf, gn, gm, and generally before j:

con'-sul, în-fë'-lîx, reg'-num, seg-men'-tum, hu'-jus.

NOTE 3.—The signs -, * are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is long, the second that it is common, i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short: a-mā'-bō. All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

NOTE 4.- Diphthongs are always long.

ACCENTUATION.

17. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: mēn'-sa.

Note.-Monosyllables are also accented.

18. Words of more than two syllables are accented on

¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.

² Observe that the vowel in such syllables may be either long or short. Thus it is long in $r\tilde{e}x$, but short in dux and sunt.

³ Thus in long syllables the vowels may be either long or short, as in r2x, dux, sunt; see foot-note 4, p. 4. But in short syllables the vowels are also short.

⁴ See Schmitz, pp. 3-33, also p. 56; Kühner, I., p. 137; also H. A. J. Munro's pamphlet on the Pronunciation of Latin, pp. 24-26.

⁵ See p. 4, foot note 4. In many works short vowels are marked with the sign ~: regis.

With the ancient Romans accent probably related not to force or stress of voice, as with us, but to musical pitch. It was also distinguished as acute or circumflew. Thus all monosyllables and all words in which the vowel of the penult is long and the final syllable short were said to have the circumflex accent, while all other accented words were said to have the acute. The distinction is of no practical value in pronunciation. On the general subject of Accent, see Ellis, pp. 8-10; Roby, I., pp. 98-100; Kühner, I., p. 146; Corssen, II., pp. 806-808.

the *Penult*, if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the *Antepenult*: ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.

- 1. Certain words which have lost a syllable retain the accent of the full form. Thus-
- 1) Genitives in \$\ti\$ for \$i\ti\$ and vocatives in \$\ti\$ for \$ie: in-ge'-n\ti\$ for \$in-ge'-n\ti-\ti\$, \$Mer-cu'-r\ti\$ for \$Mer-cu'-r\ti-e\$.
- 2) Certain words which have lost a final e: il-līc' for il-līc'-ce, il-lāc' for \$\frac{4\cl}{e}\ll \displace' for is-tīc' for is-tīc'-ce, etc.; bo-nān' for bo-nā'-ne, il-lān' for il-lā'-nc, tan-tōn' for tan-tō'-ne, au-dīn' for au-dīs'-ne, \frac{2}{e}\duc'-ce.\frac{3}{e}\duc' for \frac{2}{e}\duc' for \frac{2}{e}\duc'-ce.\frac{3}{e}\duc' for \frac{2}{e}\duc' for \fr

Note 1.—Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics—i. e., are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word as to have no accent of their own: $sub\ j\bar{u}'$ -di-ce, in- $ter\ r\bar{e}'$ - $q\bar{e}s$.

Nore 2.—Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.

- 2. Compounds are accented like simple words; but-
- 1) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, ce, met, etc., throw back their accents upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho'-mi-ne'-que, mēn-sa'-que, e-go'-met.
- Fació, compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-!e-fa'-cit.*
- 3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: $mo'-nu-\bar{e}'-runt_{\downarrow}$ $mo'-nu-e-r\bar{a}'-mus,$ ° $\bar{i}n-stau'-r\bar{a}-v\bar{e}'-runt$.

Note.—A few long words admit two secondary or subordinate accents: ho'-nō-rij'-t-cen-tis'-si-mus.

PHONETIC CHANGES.

19. Latin words have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

1 The penult is the last syllable but one; the antepenult, the last but two.

- ² Thus the quantity of the *syllable*, not of the *vowel*, determines the place of the accent: *regen'-tis*, accented on the penult, because that *syllable* is *long*, though its *rowei* is *short*; see 16, I., 2.
- ³ According to Prisclan, certain contracted words, as ves-trās' for ves-trā'-tis, or with the circumflex accent, ves-trās for ves-trā-tis, Sam-nis for Sam-ni-tis, also retained the accent of the full form; but it is not deemed adv'sable to multiply exceptions in a school grammar. See Prisclan, IV., 22.
 - 4 By the English method, hom'-i-ne'-que, cal'-e-fa'-cit.
- 6 A word accented upon the penult thus loses its own accent before an enciitic: mēn'-sa, mēn-sa'-que.
- 6 By the English method, mon'-u-ē'-runt, mon'-u-e-rā'-mus, hon'-ō-rif'-i-cen-tis' si-mus.
- In the history of the ancient languages of the Indo-European family, to which the Latin, Greek, and English alike belong, the general direction of phonetic change has been from the extremes of the alphabetic scale—i. e., from the open α at one extreme and

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS

20. Vowels are often lengthened:

1. In compensation for the dropping of consonants:

Servoms, 1 servõs, slaves; regems, reges. kings; posnõ, ponõ, I place; pagla, 1 pāla, a spade.

2. In the inflection of verbs:

Legő, legī, ² I read, I have read; edő, èdī, I eat, I have eaten; fugið, fügī. I fiee, I have fled.

Note 1.—Sometimes vowels are changed, as well as lengthened: $ag\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{e}gl$, I drive, I have driven; $faci\tilde{o}$, $f\tilde{e}c\tilde{e}$, I make, I have made; see 255, II.

Note 2.—Different forms from the same stem or root sometimes show a variable vowel: ducis, ducis, of a leader, you lead; regis, regis, you rule, of a king; tegö, toga. I cover, a covering, the toga. See also 22, 1.

21. Vowels are often shortened: 4

1. Regularly in final syllables before m and t:

Erām, eram, I was; moneām, moneam, let me advise; audiām, audiam, let me hear; erāt, erat, he was; amāt, amat, he loves; monēt, monet, he advises; sīt, sīt, may he be; audīt, audīt, he hears.

2. Often in other final syllables. Thus-

1) Final \tilde{a}^6 is shortened (1) in the Plural of Neuter nouns and adjectives, and (2) in the Nominative and Vocative Singular of Feminine nouns and adjectives of the first declension:

from the close mutes at the other—toward the middle of the scale, where the vowels and consonants meet; see 3. Accordingly, in Latin words we shall not unfrequently find e or o, or even i or u, occupying the place of a primitive a; and we shall sometimes find a liquid or a fricative occupying the place of a primitive mute. See Whitney, p. 68: Papillon, p. 49; Pelle, pp. 199 and 312.

1 O short in servoms is lengthened in servos to compensate for the loss of m, and a short in pagla is lengthened in $p\bar{a}la$ to compensate for the loss of g.

² The short vowel of the present tense is here lengthened in the perfect; see 255, II

3 In ducis, dücis, and in regis, rēgis, the variation is simply in the quantity of the vowel, but in tegô, toga, it affects the vowel itself, appearing as e in tegô and o in toga. Sometimes a single vowel appears in one form while a diphthong appears in another #des, faith, foedus, treaty.

4 See Corssen, Il., p. 436 seq.

⁵ In all these examples, the form with the long vowel in the final syllable is the earlier form, and, in general, is found only in inscriptions and in the early poets, as Plautus, Ennius, etc.; while the form with the short vowel belongs to the classical period.

6 Corssen regards numerals in -gintā, as trī-gintā, quadrā-gintā, etc., as Plural Neuters, and ā as the original ending. He recognizes also the Neuter Plural of the pronoun with ā in ant-eā, post-eā, inter-eā, praeter-eā, ante-hā-c, praeter-hā-c. Sec Corssen, II., p. 455 For a different explanation, see 304, IV., N. 2.

⁷ In masculine nouns of the first declension a final was short in the Nominative even in early Latin: $\kappa c \tau \bar{\tau} b a$, a scribe. But most stems in a weakened a to a, and thus passed into the second declension.

Templa, templa, temples; generā, genera, kinds; graviā, gravia, heavy; mūsā, mūsa, muse; bonā, bona, good.

2) In ar, or, and al final, a and o are regularly shortened:

Regār, regar, let me be ruled; audiār, audiar, let me be heard; audiōr, audior, I am heard; honor, honor; ōrātōr, ōrātor, orator; moneōr, moneor, I am advised; animāle, animāl (27), animal, an animal.

3) Final ē, I, and ō are sometimes shortened:

Benē, bene, well; nūbē, nūbe, with a cloud; nisī, nisī, unless; ibī, ibī, there; leō, leō, a lion; egō, ego, I.

22. Vowels are often weakened, i. e., are often changed to weaker vowels.

The order of the vowels, from the strongest to the weakest, is as follows:

Note.—The change from a through o to u is usually arrested at u, while a is often changed directly through e to i without passing through o or u.

1. Vowels are often weakened in consequence of the lengthening of words by inflection, composition, etc.:

Carmen, carmenis, carminis, a song, of a song; frūctus, frūctubus, frūctibus, fruit, with fruits; faciō, cōn-faciō, cōn-ficiō, I make, I accomplish; factus, īn-factus, īn-fectus, made, not made; damnō, con-damnō, condemnō, I doom, I condemn; teneō, con-teneō, con-tineō, I hold, I contain; cadō, ca-cad-ī, ce-cid-ī, I fall, I have fallen; tuba, tuba-cen, tubi-cen, a flute, a flute-player.

³ That is, the open a is changed either to the close u through the medial o, as seen on the right side of the following vowel-triangle, or to the close i through the medial e, as seen on the left side:

Open vowel							٠			\boldsymbol{a}		
Medial vowels									6		0	
Close vowels								i				u

[•] The syllable men was originally man. The original a has been weakened to e in carmon and to i in carmon is

¹ See Corssen, II., pp. 1-486. The process by which vowels are shortened (21), weakened, or dropped (27), and by which diphthongs are weakened to single vowels, and consonants assimilated, or otherwise changed, is generally known as Phoneric Degay. It may result from indistinct articulation, or from an effort to secure ease of utterance. For a difficult sound, or combination of sounds, it substitutes one which requires less physical affort.

 $^{^{2}}$ But $u,\,e,\,\mathrm{and}\,\,i$ differ so slightly in strength that they appear at times to be simply interchanged.

2. Vowels are often weakened without any such special cause: 1

Puerom, puerum, a boy; filios, filius, son; sont, sunt, they are; regont, regunt, they rule; decumus, decimus, tenth; māxumus, māximus, greatest; lēgitumus, lēgitimus, lawful; aestumō, aestimō, I estimate.

- 23. Two successive vowels are sometimes contracted:
- 1. Into a diphthong: mēnsā-ī, mēnsai, mēnsae, tables; see 4.
- 2. More frequently into a LONG VOWEL. In this case the second vowel generally disappears. Thus e and i often disappear after a, e, and o:

Amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved; amāvisse, amaisse, amāsse, to have loved; flēvērunt, flērunt, flērunt, they have wept; nōvisse, noisse, nōsse, to know; servoī, servō, for the slave.

NOTE.— Ine proper diphthongs of early Latin were changed or weak-nued as follows:

- ai's generally into ae; sometimes into ē or L
- oi generally into oe; sometimes into ū or L
- ei generally into I; sometimes unchanged.
- au sometimes into o or ū; generally unchanged.
- eu generally into ū; rarely unchanged.
- ou regularly into ū.

Aidilis, aedilis, an aedile; Rōmai, Rōmae, at Rome; amaimus, amēmus, let us love; in-caedit, in-cidit, he cuts into; mēnsaus, mēnsīs, with tables; foidus, foedus, treaty; coira, coera, cūra, care; loidos, loedus, lūdus,³ play; puerois, puerīs, for the boys; ceivis, cīvis, citizen; lautus, lōtus,⁴ elegant; ex-claudō, ex-clūdō, I shut out; doucit, dūcit, he leads; jous, jūs,⁵ right.

24. Vowels are sometimes changed through the influence of the consonants which follow them. Thus—

¹ That is, by the ordinary process of phonetic decay, a process which in many words has changed an original a of the parent language to a or a in Latin, and in some words to a or a. Corsen cites upward of four hundred Latin words in which he supposes a primitive a to have been weakened to a, a, or a. Even the long vowels are sometimes weakened. Compare the following forms, in which the Sanskrit retains the vowel of the parent language.

•	care many days c.					
	SANSKRIT.	LATIN. septem,	English.	Sanskrit. padas,	Latin. pedēs,	English.
	nava,	novem,	nine.	bavas,	Dovus,	new.
	daça,	decem,	ten.	vāk,	vōx,	voice.
	mātā,	mäter,	mother.	vācas,	võcis,	of a roice.
	sadas,	sēdēs,	seat.	vācam,	vocem,	roice.

² The forms ai, oi, ei, au, eu, and ou are all found in early Latin, as in inscriptions; but in the classical period ai had been already changed to ae, oi to oe, and ou to \bar{u} .

³ Loidos, the earliest form, became loedus by weakening oi to oe, and o to u (22, 2); then loedus became $l\bar{u}dus$ by weakening oe to \bar{u} .

⁴ Lautus, the earlier, is also the more approved form.

[•] As eu and ou were both weakened to \bar{u} , it is not easy to give trustworthy examples of the weakening of eu to \bar{u} .

1. E is the favorite vowel before r, x, or two or more consonants:

Cinisis, cineris 1 (31), of ashes; jūdix, jūdex, judge; mīlitis, mīlets, mīles, of a soldier, a soldier.

Note.—E final is also a favorite vowel: serve, serve, O slave; monèris, monèri, monère, you are advised; mari, mare, sea.

2. I is the favorite vowel before n, s, and t:

Homonis, hominis, of a man; pulver or pulvis, dust; salūtes, salūtes, of safety; vērotās, vēritās, truth; genetor, genitor, father.

3. U is the favorite vowel before l and m, especially when followed by another consonant:

Epistola, epistula, letter; volt, vult, he wishes; facilitäs, facilitäs (27), facultäs, faculty; monementum, monumentum, monument; colomna, columna, columna.

- 25. Assimilation.—A vowel is often assimilated by a following vowel. Thus—
- 1. A vowel before another vowel is often partially sassimilated. I is thus changed to e before a, o, or u: ia, ea, this; $i\delta$, $e\delta$, I go; iunt, eunt, they go; iadem, eadem, same; $d\bar{\imath}vus$, $d\bar{\imath}us$ (36, 4), deus, god.

Note.—When the first vowel is thus adapted to the second, the assimilation is said to be regressive, but sometimes the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is progressive. Thus the ending $i\bar{a}$ (21, 2), instead of becoming ea as shove, may become $i\bar{s}$: luxurt \bar{a} (perhaps for luxuri \bar{a} s), luxurt \bar{e} s, luxury; māteri \bar{a} , māteri \bar{e} s, material.

- 2. A vowel may be completely assimilated by the vowel of the following syllable from which it is separated by a consonant. Thus—
- 1) E is assimilated to i: meh, mih, mih, for me; teb, tib, for you; seb, sib, for himself; nehil, nihil, nothing.
- U is assimilated to i: consulium, consilium, counsel; exsulium, exsilium, exile.
- 3) Other vowels are sometimes assimilated; o to e: bone, bene, bene (21, 2), well; e to u: tegurium, tugurium, hut; e to o: eecore, sōcore, stupid.
 - 26. DISSIMILATION.—A vowel is often changed by dissimilation,

¹ Cinisis, from cinis, becomes cineris by changing s to r between two vowels, making ciniris (31, 1), and by then changing i to e before r.

Observe that the vowel which appears as i in militis before t, takes the form of e in milets before ts, as also in miles for milets.

³ Moneris becomes monere by dropping s (36, 5), and changing final i to e.

⁴ Observe that the form in r has e, while that in s has i.

⁵ That is, it is made like it, adapted to it, but does not become identical with it. Thus i before a may be changed to e, but not to a.

⁶ Thus from nouns in $i\bar{a}$ of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in $i\bar{a}$ of the fifth.

i. e., by being made unlike the following vowel: $i\bar{\imath}$, $e\bar{\imath}$, these; $i\bar{\imath}s$, $e\bar{\imath}s$, for these.

NOTE.—The combination ii is sometimes avoided by the use of e in place of the second i: pietās instead of piitās, piety; societās, society; varietās, variety.

27. Vowels are often dropped in the middle or at the end of words, sometimes even at the beginning:

Tempulum, templum, temple; vinculum, vinclum, band; benigenus, benīgpus, benignant; amaō, amō, I love; temploa, templa, temples; animāle, animal, an animal; sī-ne, sīn, if not; dīce, dīc, say; esum, sum, I am; esumus, sumus, we are.

Note.—After a word ending in a vowel or in m, est, he is, often drops the initial e, and becomes attached to the preceding word: $r\bar{e}s$ optuma est, $r\bar{e}s$ optumast, the thing is best; optumum est, optumumest, it is best; dont est, dont est, he is at home. In the same way es, thou art, is sometimes attached to the preceding word, when that word ends in a vowel: $hom\bar{o}s$, $hom\bar{o}s$, you are a man. For the loss of a final s from the preceding word, see 36, 5, 1), note.

II. INTERCHANGE OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

28. The vowel i and the consonant i—also written j—are sometimes interchanged:

Allior, higher; maior or major, greater; ipsius, of himself; čius or ejus, of him.

29. The vowel u and the consonant u—generally written v—are often interchanged:

Col-ui, I have cultivated; vocā-vi, I have called; nāvita, nāvita, nauta, sailor; volvtus, volūtus, rolled; lavtus, lautus or lötus, washed; movtus, moutus, motus, o moved.

Note.—The Liquids and Nasals are sometimes so fully vocalized as to develop vowels

¹ The combination uu was also avoided in early Latin either by retaining the second vowel in the form of o, instead of weakening it to u, or by changing qu to c: equos, afterward equus, a horse; quom, or cum, afterward, though not properly in classical times, quum, when. Observe that when o becomes u, a preceding qu becomes c: quom, cum; toquotius, tocutus, having spoken. See Brambach, p. 5.

² See 16, note 2,

³ Observe that after e is dropped, \bar{a} is shortened in the final syliable: $anim\bar{a}l$, animal; see 21, 2.

In the comparative ending ior, as seen in altior, i is a vowel, but in the same ending, as seen in mitior, major, it is a consonant, and in this grammar is generally written j. I thus becomes j between two vowels; see 2, 4, foot-note. So in the genitive ending itus, i is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant.

⁵ The ending which appears as $u\bar{\imath}$ in col- $u\bar{\imath}$ becomes $v\bar{\imath}$ in $voc\bar{\imath}-v\bar{\imath}$. U becomes v between two vowels.

⁶ If a vowel precedes the r thus changed to n, a contraction takes place—a-u becoming au, rarely δ , o-u becoming δ , and u-u becoming \tilde{u} : lartus, lautus, lōtus, washed mortus, moutus, mōtus, moved; juctus, juutus, jūlus, assisted.

before them. Thus agr (for agrus) becomes ager, field; acr (for acris), acer, sharp; regm, regem, king; sm (for esm), sum, I am; snt (for esnt), sunt, they are.

III. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS.

30. A Guttural—c, g, q (qu), or h4—before s generally unites with it and forms x:

Ducs, dux, leader; pācs, pāx, peace; rēgs, rēcs, rēx, king; lēgs, lēcs, lêx, law; coqusī, cocsī, s coxī, I have cooked; trahsī, tracsī, traxī, I have drawn.

Note 1 - V for gv in $v\bar{v}v\bar{o}$, I live, is treated as a guttural: $v\bar{v}v\bar{e}\bar{i}$, $v\bar{v}c\bar{e}\bar{i}$, $v\bar{v}a\bar{i}$, 1 have lived.

Norm 2.—For the Dropping of the Guttural before s, see 36, 8.

31. S is often changed to r:

1. Generally so when it stands between two vowels: § floses, flores, flowers; fusa, jūra, rights; mēnsāsum, mēnsārum, of tables; agrōsum, agrōrum, of fields; esam, eram, I was; esāmus, erāmus, we were; fuesunt, fuerunt, they have been; fuesit, fuerit, he will have been; amāset, amāret, he would love; regisis, regeris, vou are ruled.

Note.—This phonetic law, in full force during the formative period of the language, subsequently became inoperative.

2. Sometimes before m, n, or v: casmen, carmen, song; vetesnus, veternus, old; hodiesnus, hodiernus, of this day; Minesva, Minerva, the goddess Minerva.

32. D is sometimes changed to 1:

Dacrima, lacrima, tear; dingua, lingua, language; odère, olère, to emit an odor.

NOTE 1.—D final sometimes stands in the place of an original *t*: *id*, this; *istud*, that: *illud*, that; *quod*, *quid*, what, which?

NOTE 2.—Dv at the beginning of a word (1) sometimes becomes b: dvellum, bellum, war; dvis, bis, twice; (2) sometimes drops d: dviginti, viginti, twenty; and (3) sometimes drops v: dvis, dis, inseparable particle (308), in two, asunder.

33. Partial Assimilation.—A consonant is often partially ¹⁰ assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

¹ This occurs between consonants and at the end of words after consonants.

² The ending us or is is dropped (36, 5, 2), note), and r final vocalized to er; m occomes em in regem, and um in sum; n becomes un in sunt.

² Sometimes gu: exstingusī, exstincsī, exstincsī, I have extinguished.

⁴ For an original gh.

⁵ The process seems to be that the guttural before s first becomes c, and then unites with s and forms x: thus in $coqus\bar{s}$, qu becomes c.

⁶ Hence, in many Latin words, r between two vowels represents an original a.

⁷ Observe that i before s becomes e before r: see 24.

⁸ For Men-es-va, men weakened to min, see 22, 1.

[•] For it, istut, etc. D stands for t also in the old Ablative in d: praedād for praedād, afterward praedā, with booty; magistrātād for magistrātāt, magistrātā, from the magistracy.

¹⁹ That is, it is adapted or accommodated to it, but does not become the same letter

1. Before the surd s or t, a sonant b or g is generally changed to its corresponding surd, p¹ or c:

Scribsi, scripsi, I have written; scribtus, scriptus, written; regsi, recsi, rexi (30), I have ruled; regtus, rectus, ruled. See also 35, 3, note.

Note.—Qu, h for gh, and v for gv are also changed to c before s and t: coquitt, ecoesit, coxit, he has cooked; coquius, cocius, cooked; trahsit, trawit, trawit, he has drawn; trahus, tractus, drawn; $v\bar{v}vsit$, t $v\bar{v}csit$, $v\bar{v}xit$, he has lived; $v\bar{v}vt\bar{u}rus$, $v\bar{v}ct\bar{u}rus$, about to live.

2. Before a sonant 1, m, n, or r, a surd c, p, or t is generally changed to its corresponding sonant, g, b, or d:

Neclegő, neglegő, I neglect; sec-mentum, segmentum, a cutting; populicus, pūplicus, pūblicus, a public; quatra, quadra, a square; quatrāgintā, quadrāgintā, forty.

3. Before a Labial p or b, n is generally changed to m:8

Inperő, imperő, 1 command; inperator, imperator, commander; inbellis, imbellis, unwarlike.

Note.—Before n, a Labial p or b is changed to m in a few words: sopnus, somnus, sleep; Sabnium, Samnium, the country of the Samnites.

- 4. M is changed to n-
- 1) Regularly before a Dental Mute:

Eumdem, eundem, the same; eōrumdem, eōrundem, of the same; quendam, quendam, a certain one; tamtus, tantus, so great; quamtus, quantus, how great, as great.

2) Often before a Guttural Mute:

Hum-ce, hunc, this; num-ce, nunc, now; prim-ceps, princeps, first, num-quam or nunquam, never; quamquam or quanquam, although.

- ¹ But b is generally retained (1) before s in nouns in bs: urbs, not urps, city, and in abs, from; and (2) before s and t in ob, on account of, and sub, under, in compounds and derivatives: observains, observant; obstikus, obtuse; subservibi, I subscribe: subster, under. In these cases, however, b takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes placed in pronunciation, though not in uriting. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing: inprimis and imprimis, both pronounced imprimis. See Roby, I., p. lvii.; Munro, p. 10.
- ² Qu, also written qv, is not a syllable; nor is u or v in this combination either a vowel or a consonant, but simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it.
 - 3 For traghsit; h is dropped, and g assimliated to c.
 - 4 For grigosit; the first g and the second v are dropped: vigsit, vicsit, vivit.
 - From populus, the people.
 - P is changed to b, and o is weakened to u; see 22.
 - ' From quattuor, four,
 - * That is, the dental n becomes the labial m,
- "Or" placed between two forms denotes that both are in good nae: numquam es numquam. In other cases the last is the only approved form; nunc, princeps.

NOTE 1.—Before the ending -que, m is generally retained: 1 quitoumque, whoever, quemque, every one; namque, for indeed.

Note 2.—Quom-iam or quom-jam becomes quonium, since.

34. A consonant is often completely assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

1. T or d is often assimilated before n or s:

Petna, penna, feather; mercednārius, mercennārius, mercenary; concutsit; concussit, he has shaken.

Note.—M before s is sometimes assimilated, and sometimes develops p: premsit, pressit, he has pressed; sūmsit, sūmpsit, he has taken.

2. D, n, or r is often assimilated before 1:

Sedula, sedla (27), sella, seat; ūnulus, ūnlus (27), ūllus, any; puerula, puerla, puella, girl.

3. B, g, or n is often assimilated before m:

Sub-moreŏ or sum-moreŏ, I remove; supmus, summus, highest; flagma, flamma, flame; inmōtus or immōtus, unmoved.

Note. -- For Assimilation in Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

- 35. Dissimilation.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus—
 - 1. Caeluleus becomes caeruleus, azure; medī-diēs, merīdiēs, midday.
- 2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with r to be used after l, and one with l to be used after $r:^2$ $\bar{a}ris$, $\bar{a}lis$; burum, brum, bulum; bulum;

Populāris, popular; rēgālis, kingly; dēlūbrum, shrine; tribulum, threshing-sledge; sepulcrum, sepulchre; perīculum, peril.

- 8. A Dental Mute-d or t-may unite with a following t in two ways:
- 1) Dt or tt before r may become st:

Rodtrum, rostrum, a beak; equettris, equestris, equestrian.

2) Dt or tt before a vowel may become ss or s:5

Folius, fossus, dug; vidius, visus, seen; plaudius, plausus, praised; metus, messus, reaped; vertius, versus, turned.

But probably with the sound of n; see p. 17, foot-note 1.

² This distinction is, however, not always observed. The form with l, probably weakened from that with r, became the favorite form, and was generally used if l did sot precedu.

From beyons are formed (1) brum by dropping u, and (2) bulum by weakening r into L. In the same way crum and culum are formed from curum.

• In popularis, āris is used because l precedes; but in rēgālis, ālis is used because r precedes. When neither l nor r precedes, the weakened form ālis is used.

• In regard to the exact process by which dt or tt becomes ss or s, there is a diversity of opinion among philologians. See Papillon, p. 75; Roby, p. 62: Corssen, I., μ. 200 550ks, p. 183, 187; Osthoff, p. 550.

NOTE.—Lgt may become le; ' rgt, rs; ' llt, ls; ' and rrt, rs: ' mulgtus, muleus, milked; spargtus, sparsus, scattered; falltus, falsus, false; verrtus, versus, awept.

- 36. Omission.—Consonants are sometimes dropped. Thus—
- Some words which originally began with two consonants have dropped the first:

Clāmentum, lāmentum, lamentation; gnātus, nātus, born; gnōtus, nōtus, known; dvīgintī, vīgintī, twenty; sfallit, fallit, he deceives.

2. A Dental Mute-d or t-before s is generally dropped: 5

Lapids, lapis, stone; aetāts, aetās, age; mīlets, mīles, soldier; claudsī, clausī, I have closed.

- 3. A Guttural Mute-c, g, or q (qu)-is generally dropped-
- 1) Between a Liquid and s:

Mulcsit, mulsit, he has appeased; fulgsit, fulsit, it has lightened.

2) Between a Liquid and t:

Fulctus, fultus, propped; sarctus, sartus, repaired.

3) Between a Liquid and m:

Fulgmen, fulmen, lightning; torqumentum, termentum, engine for hurling missiles.

Note 1.—A Guttural Mute is occasionally dropped in other situations. 7 Thus—

1. C before m and ce before n: lücmen, lümen, light; lücena, lüna, moon.

- C between n and d or t: quinctus, quintus, fifth; quincdecim, quindecim, fifteen.
- 3. G before m or v: casgmen, examen (20, 1), a swarm; jūgmentum, jūmentum, beast of burden: magvult, $m\bar{a}vult$, he prefers; bregvis, brevis, short.

Note 2.—X is sometimes dropped: sexdecim, sēdecim (20, 1), sixteen; sexnī, sēnī, six each; texula, texla, tēla, a web; axula, axla, āla, wing.

Note 8.—N.º r. and s are sometimes dropped: in-gnôtus, *gnôtus, unknown; fôr-mônsus, fôr-môsus, beantiful; quotièns, 1º quotiès, how often; decièns, deciès, le teo

- 1 T is changed to s, and g is dropped,
- ² T is changed to s, and one l is dropped in llt, and one r in rrt.
- 3 Compare clamo, I cry out.
- 4 Seen in 7-gnotus, ignotus, unknown.
- 6 Probably first assimilated and then dropped: lapids, lapiss, lapis. But the dental is sometimes assimilated and retained: cēdsī, cessī, I have yielded: concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.
 - O lengthened in compensation; see 20, 1.
- ⁷ Sextius becomes Sēstius, a proper name; sexcentī, sēscentī, six hundred; and mīxtus, mīxtus, mixed, by dropping the mute contained in the double consonant x.
 - ⁸ G has also been dropped in aið for agið, I say; major for magior, greater, etc.
- In numerals nt is sometimes dropped: ducentnī, ducēnī, two hundred each; vī-gent-simus or vīcent-simus, vīgēsimus or vīcēsimus, twentieth.
 - 10 So in all numeral adverbs in iens, ies. The approved ending in most numeral

times; mulier-bris, muliebris, womanly; prorsa, prosa; isdem, idem, same, jūs-dex, jūdex, judge; audisne, audine, audin, do you hear? visne, vine, vin, de you wish?

4. A Semivowel-j or v, also written i or u-is often dropped:

Bi-jugae, biugae, bīgae, chariot with two horses; quadri-jugae, quadrīgae, chariot with four horses; con-jūnctus, co-jūnctus, cūnctus, the whole; abjiciò or abiciō,¹ I throw away; dīvitior, ditior, dītior, richer; nevolō, neolō, nolō, I am unwilling; amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved.²

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of v: si vis, siis, sis, in you wish; si villis, siultis, siultis, sillis, if you wish.

- 5. Final consonants are often dropped. Thus-
- 1) Final s is often dropped:3

Monèris, monère (24, 1, note), you are advised; illus, illu, ille, that; istus, istu, iste, that of yours; ipsus, ipsu, ipse, self, he; parricidas, parricida; magis or mage, more; sīvīs, sīve, whether, lit., if you wish.

Note.—In the early poets es, thou art, and est, he is, after having dropped the initial e, sometimes become attached to the preceding word, which has lost its final s: vertine es, vertiu's, you feared; tempus est, tempust, it is time; virtūs est, virtūst, it is virtue. See 27, note.

2) A final d or t is often dropped:

Cord, cor, heart; praedād, praedā, s with booty; intrād, intrā, within; facilumēd, s facillimē, most easily; vēnērunt, vēnēru, vēnēre, they have come; rēxērunt, rēxēre, they have ruled.

Note.—Sometimes both a vowel and a consonant disappear at the end of a word: puerus, puer, boy (51, 2, 4)); deinde or dein, thereupon; nihilum or nihil, nothing.

3) A final n⁸ is generally dropped in the Nominative Singular from tems in on:

Leon, leo, lion; praedon, praedo, robber; homon, homo, man.

edverbs is ies, but in those formed from indefinite numerals, as tot, quot, it is iens totiens, quotiens.

¹ This is the approved form in verbs compounded of $jact\check{o}$ and monosyllabic prepositions; but $abict\check{o}$ is pronounced as if written $abjict\check{o}$ or $ab-itct\check{o}$, i. e., i=ji, pronounced ye by the Roman method. The syllable ab thus remains long.

² Several adverbial forms were produced by the loss of r with the attendant changes: revorsus, reorsus, rūrsus, back; subsvorsum, susvorsum, suorsum, sūrsum, from be low, on bigh.

- ³ In early inscriptions proper names in os, afterward us, occur without the s as often as with it: Röscios, Röscio; Gabinios, Gabinio.
 - 4 This form actually occurs in early Latin.
- ⁶ The Ablative singular ended anciently in d, originally t. Many prepositions and diverbs in \tilde{a} and $\tilde{\epsilon}$ are ablatives in origin, and accordingly ended in d.
 - 6 Written with one /, afterward with two.
- 7 Here final t was first dropped, then n, having become final, also disappeared, and n last final u was weakened to e; see 24, 1, note.
 - ⁸ In early inscriptions final m is often dropped.

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

- 37. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, inflection and derivation of words.
- 38. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

- 39. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: Cicerö, Cicero; Rōma, Rome; domus, house.
- 1. A Proper Nous is a proper name, as of a person or place : $Cicer\delta$, $R\delta ma$.
- 2. A COMMON NOUN is a name common to all the members of a class of objects: vir, man; equus, horse. Common nouns include—
- 1) Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.
- Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtūs, virtue; jūstitia, justice.
- 3) Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; hgnum, wood; aqua, water.
 - 40. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

I. GENDER.

41. There are three genders'—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Note.—In some nouns gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

^{&#}x27;In English, Gender denotes sex. Accordingly, masculine nouns denote males; feminine nouns, females; and neuter nouns, objects which are neither male nor female. In Latin, however, this natural distinction of gender is applied only to the names of males and females; while, in all other nouns, gender depends upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

42. GENERAL RULES FOR GENDER.

- I. MASCULINES.
- 1. Names of Males: Cicero; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months: Rhēnus, Rhine; Notus, south wind; Mārtius, March.
 - II. FEMININES.
 - 1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
- 2. Names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Graecia, Greece; $R\bar{o}ma$, Rome; $D\bar{e}los$, Delos; pirus, peartree.

Note.—Indeclinable nouns, 1 infinitives, and all clauses used as nouns are neuter: alpha, the letter $a.^2$ See also 532.

43. REMARKS ON GENDER.

- 1. Exceptions.—The endings ³ of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus, some names of *rivers*, *countries*, *towns*, *islands*, *trees*, and *animals* take the gender of their endings; see 53, 1.
- 2. MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes *masculine* and sometimes *feminine*, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally *masculine*: $c\bar{v}vis$, citizen (man or woman); $b\bar{o}s$, ox, cow.
- 3. EPICENE Nouns apply only to the inferior animals. They are used for both sexes, but have only one gender, and that is usually determined by their endings: anser, goose, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

II. PERSON AND NUMBER.

44. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

III. CASES.4

45. The Latin has six cases:

¹ Except names of persons.

² See 128, 1.

³ Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

⁴ The case of a noun shows the relation which that noun sustains to other words; as, John's book. Here the possessive case (John's) shows that John sustains to the book the relation of possessor.

NAMES. ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

Nominative, Nominative.

Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.

Dative, Objective with to or for.

Accusative, Objective.

Vocative, Nominative Independent.

Ablative, Objective with from, with, by, in.

 OBLIQUE CASES.—The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. LOCATIVE.—The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the place in which.

DECLENSION.

- 46. Stem and Suffixes.—The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.
- 1. Meaning.—Accordingly, each case-form contains two distinct elements—the stem, which gives the general meaning of the word, and the case-suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in $r\bar{e}g$ -is, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem $r\bar{e}g$; the relation of, by the suffix is.
 - 2. CASES ALIKE. But certain cases are not distinguished in form.
- 1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in Neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
- 2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension (51).2
 - 3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.
- 3. CHARACTERISTIC.—The last letter of the stem is called the Stem-Characteristic, or the Stem-Ending.
- 47. FIVE DECLENSIONS.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the stem-characteristics or by the endings of the Genitive Singular, as follows:

¹ Moreover, in many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a *Root* For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.

And in some nouns of Greek origin.

	CHARACTERISTICS.	GENITIVE ENDINGS.
DEC. I.	ă	ae
II.	0	ī
III.	i or a conso	nant is
IV	u	ប៊ុន
V.	ĕ	ĕī

NOTE 1.—The five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection, as the case-suffixes are nearly identical in all nouns.

NOTE 2.—But these case-suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nonns with consonant-stems, while in all others they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i. e., with the final vowel of the stem.

NOTE 3.—The ending produced by the union of the case-suffix with the charac teristic vowel may for convenience be called a CASE-ENDING.

FIRST DECLENSION: A NOUNS.

48. Nouns of the first declension end in

a and ē-feminine; ās and ēs-masculine.

Nouns in a are declined as follows:

	SINGULAR.	
EXAMPLE.	MEANING.	CASE-ENDING
Nom. mēnsa,	a table, ²	a 3
Gen. mēnsae,	of a table,	ae
Dat. mēnsae,	to, for a table,	ae
Acc. mēnsam,	a table,	am
Voc. mēnsa,	O table,	a
Abl. mēnsā,	from, with, by a table,4	2
	PLURAL.	
Nom. mēnsae,	tables,	ae
Gen. mēnsārum,	of tables,	ārum
Dat. mēnsīs,	to, for tables,	19
Acc. mēnsās,	tables,	ās
Voc. mēnsae,	O tables,	ae
Abl. mēnsīs,	from, with, by tables.4	īs

¹ That is, nouns of this declension in α and \bar{e} are feminine, and those in $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{e}s$ are masculine.

² The Nom. mensa may be translated a table, table, or the table; see 48, 6.

³ These case-endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changea, and in certain cases the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared. Thus the anfilx has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular, and appears only as e in four other case-forms, while the characteristic a has disappeared in the ending to contracted from a-is, in the Dative and Ablative Plural; see 23, 2, note.

⁴ Still other prepositions, as in, on, at, are sometimes used in translating the Ablative .

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the first declension, the stem ends in a.
- In the Paradigm, observe that the stem is mēnsā, and that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
 - 3. Examples for Practice.—Like mēnsa decline:

Ala, wing; aqua, water; causa, cause; fortuna, fortune.

4. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a very few other words have a Locative Singular 1 in ae, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular 2 number as follows:

Nom.	Roma,	Rome,	mīliti a ,	war,3
Gen.	Rōmae,	of Rome,	mīliti ae ,	of war,
Dat.	Romae,	for Rome,3	mīliti ae ,	for war,
Acc.	Rōmam.	, Rome,	mīliti am ,	war,
Voc.	Rōma,	O Rome,	mīliti a ,	O war,
Abl.	Rōmā,	from Rome,	mīliti ā ,	from war,
Loc.	Romae,	at Rome.	mīliti ae ,	in war.

- 5. Exceptions in Gender.—1. A few nouns in a are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 42, I.—2. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also dāmma, deer, and talpa, mole.
- 6. Article.—The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown; ala, wing, a wing, the wing.
 - 49. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS .- The following occur: 4
- 1. ās in the Genitive of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
- 2. āI, an old form for the Genitive ending ae, in the poets: 5 aulāī, afterward aulae, of a hall.
- 3. um in the Genitive Plural: Dardanidum for Dardanidarum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 4. ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son: deābus for deīs, to goddesses.

In the Piural of all nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Athēnis at Athens. Whether, however, the form Athēnis is in origin a Locative, an Ablative, or neither, is a disputed question. See Bopp, L. pp. 484 seq.; Schleicher, pp. 586, 587; Penka, p. 194; Delbrück, p. 27; Merguet, pp. 116, 117; Wordsworth, p. 59. In most nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative in both numbers.

² The Plural when used is like the Plural of mensa.

³ For the other prepositions which may be used in translating the Dative and the Ablative, see 45. *Militia*, war, warfare, military service.

[•] To these must be added for early Latin \tilde{a} in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and $\tilde{a}d$ in the Abl. Sing.; see 21, 2, 1), and 36, 5, 2).

⁵ Also in inscriptions as the ending of the Genitive, Dative, and Locative.

[•] Contracted from a-um like the Greek ά-ων, ων, ū shortened before m; see 580, II

Norm.—Nouns in ia sometimes have is for iis in the Dative and Ablative Plural gratis for gratiis, from gratia, favor, kindness.

50. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in **ē**, **ās**, and **ēs** are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epitomē, epitome.	Aenēās, Aeneas.	Pyrītēs, pyrites.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. epitom	Aenē ās	pyrīt ēs
Gen. epitomes	Aenē ae	pyrītae
Dat. epitomae	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
4 cc. epitom ēn	Aenē am , ān	pyrīt ēn
Voc. epitomĕ	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , a
Abl. epitom€	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , ā
	PLURAL.	
Nom. epitomae		pyrīt ae
Gen. epitomārum		pyrīt ārum
Dat. epitomIs		pyrītīs
Acc. epitomās		pyrīt ās
Voc. epitomae		pyrīt ae
Abl. epitomIs		pyrīt īs

Note 1.—In the Piural and in the Dative Singular, Greek nouns are declined like mēnsa.

Note 2.—In nouns in \tilde{e} and $\tilde{e}s$, the stem-ending \tilde{a} is changed to \tilde{e} in certain cases. Note 3.—Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like $m\tilde{e}nsa$, Many in \tilde{e} have also a form in a: $epitom\tilde{e}$, epitoma, epitoma, epitoma.

SECOND DECLENSION: O NOUNS.

51. Nouns of the second declension end in

er, ir, us, and os -masculine; um, and on-neuter.

Nouns in er, ir, us, and um are declined as follows:

Servus, 2 slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple SINGULAR. Nom. servus 3 puer ager templum Gen. servī templI puerI agrī Dat. servo puero agro templo Acc. servum templum puerum agrum Voc. templum serve puer ager Abl templo servõ puerō agr**ō**

¹ Sometimes de.

² Sometimes written servos; see 52, 1.

³ In the Roman and in the Continental pronunciation, quantity furnishes a safe guide

PLURAL.

Nom.	servI	puerI	agrī	templa
Gen.	serv õrum	puer ōrum	agr ōrum	templ õrum
Dat.	servis	puer is	agr īs	templ 1 s
Acc.	serv ōs	puer ōs	agr ōs	templ a
Voc.	servī	puer ī	agrī	templa
Abl.	servis	puer Is	agr īs	templ 1s

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the second declension, the stem ends in o
- 2. In the Paradigms, observe-
- 1) That the stems are servo, puero, agro, and templo.
- 2) That the characteristic o becomes u in the endings us and um, and e in $serce_1$ that it disappears by contraction in the endings a_1^2 \bar{i} , and $\bar{i}s$ (for o-a, o-i, and o-is), and is dropped in the forms puer and ager.
- 3) That the case-endings, including the characteristic o (47, N. 2), are as follows:

	SINGULA	AR. 1		PLURAL.	
	MASO.	Neur		MASC.	NEUT.
No	m. us 4	um	Nom.	I	8
Ge	en. I	1	Gen.	ōrum	örum
Da	ıt. ö	δ	Dat.	18	īs
Ac	c. um	um	Acc.	ŌS	8
V_{c}	ос. е ⁴	um	Voc.	ī	8
Al	7. ō	ŏ	Abl.	īs	īs

- 4) That puer and ager differ in declension from servus in dropping the endings us and e in the Nominative and Vocative: Nom. puer for puerus, Voc. puer for puere.
 - 5) That e in ager is developed by the final r.s
- 6) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative alike, ending in the plural in a; see 46, 2, 1).
- 3. Examples for Practice.—Like servus: dominus, master. Like puer: gener, son-in-law. Like ager: magister, master. Like templum bellum, war.

to the sounds of the vowels; see 5. In the English method, on the contrary, the quantity of the vowels is entirely disregarded, except as it affects the accent of the word. Thus, a in ager is short in quantity, but long in sound (10, 8), while i in servis, pueris, agris, and templis is long in quantity but short in sound (11, 1). Accordingly, in this method, the sounds of the vowels must be determined by the rules given in 9, 10, and 11. Moreover, the learner must not forget that when the quantity of the vowel is known, the quantity of the syllable, as used in poetry, is readily determined by article 16

¹ See 22 and 24, 1, note.

² Shortened from a; see 21, 2, 1),

³ See 23, note, and 27,

⁴ The endings of the Nom. and Voc. Sing, are wanting in nouns in er.

⁵ See 29, note.

- 4. Nouns in er and ir.—Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer:
 - 1) Nouns in ir: vir, virī, man.
- 2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigerī, armor-bearer; sīgnifer. sīgniferī, standard-bearer.
- 3) Adulter, adulterer; Celtiber, Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Iber, Spaniard; Līber, Bacchus; līberī, children; Mulciber, Vulcan; presbyter elder; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
- 5. Nouns in ius generally contract ii in the Genitive Singular and ie in the Vocative Singular into i without change of accent: Claudī for Claudī, of Claudīus, fīlī for fīlīī, of a son; Mercu'rī for Mercu'rī, Mercury, fīlī for fīlie, son.² In the Genitive Singular of nouns in ium the same contraction takes place; inge'nī for inge'nī, of talent; see 18, 1.
- 6. Deus is thus declined: Sing. deus, deī, deō, deum, deus, deō: Plur. N. and V. deī, dīi, dī; G. deōrum, deum; D. and A. deīs, dīs, dīs; Ās; Āsc. deōs.
- 7. NEUTERS IN **us.**—The three neuter nouns in us, 4 pelagus, sea, vīrus, poison, and vulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

Nom., Acc., Voc.	pelagus	vīrus	vulgus•
Gen.	pelagī	vīrī	vulgī
Dat., Abl.	pelago	vīrō	vulgō

Note.—Pelagus is a Greek noun (54, N. 2), and in general is used only in the singular, though $pelag\bar{e}$ occurs as an Acc. Plur. $V\bar{\imath}rus$ and vulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Acc., vulgum, in addition to the neuter form vulgus.

8. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative Singular 6 in 1, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular 7 number as follows:

Nom.	Ephesus, Ephesus,	bellum, war,
Gen.	Ephes I , of Ephesus,	bell¶, of war,
Dat.	Ephesō, for Ephesus,	bello, for war,
Acc.	Ephesum, Ephesus,	bellum, war,
Voc.	Ephese, O Ephesus,	bellum, O war,
Abl.	Epheso, from Ephesus,	bello, from, by war,
Loc.	EphesI, at Ephesus.	bell , in war.

¹ Celtiber and Iber have e long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

² Nouns in $\tilde{e}ius$ sometimes contract $\tilde{e}ie$ in the Voc. Sing. into $\tilde{e}i$; $Pomp\tilde{e}i$ or Pom $p\tilde{e}i$, Pompey.

³ Dī and dīs are the approved forms, but deī, diī and deīs, diīs also occur.

⁴ Originally s-stems which by the loss of s in the oblique cases have become o-stems; see 62, I., 1, foot-note.

⁵ Also written volgus.

⁶ In the Plural the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Gab47s, at Gabti see 48, 4, foot-note.

⁷ The Plural, when used, is like the Plural of servus, puer, etc

- 52. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:1
- 1. os and om, old endings for us and um, sometimes used after v and u: servos for servus, servom for servum; mortuos for mortuus, dead.
 - 2. us for e in the Vocative of deus, god; rare in other words.
- 3. um in the Genitive Plural, especially common in a few words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentum for talentōrum, of talents; also in a few other words: deum for deōrum; līberum for līberōrum; Argīvum for Argīvōrum.

Note.—The ending um occurs also in the Genitive Plural of many other words, especially in poetry. For the quantity of u, $\sec p$. 25, foot-note 6.

- 53. Gender.— Nouns in er, ir, us, and os are masculine, those in um and on are neuter; except—
- 1. The Feminines:—(1) See 42, II., but observe that many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings. (2) Most names of gems and ships are feminine: also alvus, belly; carbasus, sail; colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, sieve. (3) A few Greek feminines.
- 2. The Neuters:—pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, common people. For declension, see 51, 7.
- 54. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in os, ōs, and on are of Greek origin, and are declined in the singular as follows:

Dēlos	, F., * Delos.	Androgeos, Androgeos.	Īlion, Ilium.
Nom.	Dēlos	Androge 58	Ilion
Gen.	Delx	Androgeō, I	Īli t
Dat.	Dēlō	Androge 6	Ĩliō
Acc.	Dēlon	Androgeon, o	Īlion
Voc.	Dēle	Androge ōs	Īlion
Abl.	Dēlō	Androge ō	Īli ō

NOTE 1.—The Plural of nouns in os and on is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as oe in the Nominative Plural, and on in the Genitive.

NOTE 2.—Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um, and are declined like serrus and templum. Many in os or on have also a form in us or um.

Note 3 .- For Greek nouns in eus, see 68 and 68, 1.

Note 4.—Panthūs has Voc. Panthū. For pelague, see 51, 7, note.

¹ To these must be added for early Latin: 1) $\tilde{r}d$ in Abl. Sing., and \tilde{u} in Nom., Acc., and Voc. of the Neut. Plur.; see 36, 5, 2), and 21, 2, 1); 2) oe in Gen. Sing.; oe, \tilde{e} , $\tilde{e}s$, e^{is} , and $\tilde{r}s$ in Nom. Plur.: poploe= populf; $plotrum\tilde{e}=$ plūrimī; $vir\tilde{e}s=$ virī; leibereis of leiberis= liberī.

² Some recent editors have adopted vos, uos, rom and uom, for rus, uus, rum and uum, but the wisdom of such a course is at least questionable. See Brambach, p. 3.

³ M. stands for masculine, F. for feminine, and N. for neuter.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I NOUNS.

55. Nouns of the third declension end in

\mathbf{a} , \mathbf{e} , $\tilde{\mathbf{i}}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$, \mathbf{y} , \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{s} , \mathbf{t} , and \mathbf{x} .

- 56. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
 - I. Nouns whose stem ends in a Consonant.
 - II. Nouns whose stem ends in I.1

CLASS I.—CONSONANT STEMS.

57. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

Princeps, M., 2 a leader, chief.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-SUFFIXES
Nom.	princeps.	a leader,	8
Gen.	principis,	of a leader,	is
Dat.	principi,	to, for a leader,	Ī
Acc.	prīncip em ,	a leader,	em
Voc.	prīnceps,	O leader,	s
Abl.	prīncip e ,	from, with, by a leader,	e
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	prīncipēs,	leaders,	ēs
Gen.	prīncip um ,	of leaders,	um
Dat.	principibus,	to, for leaders,	ibus
Acc.	principēs,	leaders,	ēs
Voc.	principēs,	O leaders,	ēs
Abl.	prīncip ibus ,	from, with, by leaders.	ibus

- 1. STEM AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In this Paradigm observe-
- 1) That the stem is princep, modified before an additional syllable to princip; see 22, 1, and 57, 2.
- 2) That the ease-suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem; 3 see 46, 1, and 47, note 2.
- 2. Variable Vowel.—In the final syllable of dissyllable consonant stems, short e or i generally takes the form of e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and that of i in all the other cases. Thus princeps,

¹ For Gender, see 99-115.

² See foot-note 3, p. 29.

³ Thus, princep-s, princip-is, etc. In the first and second deciensions, on the contrary, the suffix can not be separated from the final vowel of the stem in such forms as mensis, pueri, agris, etc.

principis, and jūdex, jūdicis (59), alike have e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and i in all the other cases, though in princeps the original form of the radical vowel is e, and in jūdex, i. For a similar change in the vowel of the stem, see mīles, mīlitis (58), and carmen, carminis 2 (60). See also opus, operis (61).

- 3. In monosyllables in bs the stem ends in i; see urbs, 64.
- 4. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.
- 5. For Synopsis of Declension, see 87, 89.

58. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

Lapi	s, M., stone.	Aetās, F., age.	Miles, M., soldier.
		SINGULAR,	
Nom.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Gen.	lapid is	aetāt is	mīlit is
Dat.	lapid¶	aetāt ī	mīlitI
Acc.	lapidem	aetāt em	mīlit em
Voc.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Abl.	lapide	aetāte	m īlit $oldsymbol{e}$
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Gen.	lapidum	actātum	mīlit um
Dat.	lapid ibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
Acc.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Voc.	lapid ēs	aetāt ēs	mīlitēs
Abl.	lapid ibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit i bus
Nepōs,	м., grandson.	Virtūs, F., virtue.	Caput, N., head.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	nepōs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepōt is	virtūt is	capit is
Dat.	nepōt T	virtūt ī	capit T
Acc.	nepōt em	virtūt em	caput
Voc.	nepõs	virtū s	caput
Abl.	nepōt e	virtūt e	capite
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Gen.	nepõt um	virtūtum	capitum
Dat.	nepõt ibus	virtūt ibus	eapit ibus

¹ See 22, 1.

² See 22, 1, foot-note.

Acc.	nepōtēs	virtūtēs	capita
Voc.	nepőt és	virtūt ēs	capita
Abl.	nepōt ibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In these Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are lapid, actāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt, and caput.
- 2) That miles has the variable vowel, e, i, and caput, u, i; sec 57, 2.
- 3) That the dental d or t is dropped before s: lapis for lapids, aetās for aetāts, mīles for mīlets, virtūs for virtūts; see 36, 2.
- 4) That the case-suffixes, except in the neuter, caput (46, 2), are the same as those given above; see 57.
- 5) That the neuter, caput, has no case-suffix in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, a in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and the suffixes of masculine and feminine nouns in the other cases.
- 2. NEUTER STEMS IN at drop t in the Nominative Singular and end in a: Nom., poèma, Gen., poèmatis; Stem, poèmat. These nouns sometimes have is for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural: poèmatis for poèmatibus.
 - 3. For Synopsis of Declension, see 69, 78-84.

59. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

кех, м.,	Jūdex, M. &	r., Radix, r.,	Dux, M. & F.
king.	judge.	root.	leader.
	SINGULA	R.	
Nom. rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux
Gen. rēgis	jūdic is	rādīc is	ducis
Dat. rēgī	jūdic ī	rādīcī	ducI
Acc. rēgem	jūdic em	rādīc em	duc em
Voc. rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux
Abl. rēg€	j ūdic e	rādīc€	duce
	PLURAI	40	
Nom. rēgēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	duc ēs
Gen. rēgum	jūdic um	rādīc um	due um
Dat. rēgibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	ducibus
Acc. rēgēs	jūdic ēs	rādīcēs	duc ēs
Voc. rēgēs	jūdic ēs	rādīcēs	duc€s
Abl. rēgibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	duc ibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes .- In the Paradigms observe-
- 1) That the stems are $r\bar{e}g$, $j\bar{u}dic$, $r\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}c$, and duc; $j\bar{u}dic$ with the variable vowel, i, e; see 57, 2.
 - 2) That the case-suffixes are those given in 57.
- 3) That \mathbf{s} in the Nominative and Vocative Singular unites with c or g of the stem and forms x; see 30.
 - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see Nouns in x. 91-98

60. STEMS ENDING IN L, M, N, OR R.

	Sōl, M.,	Cōnsul, M.,	Passer, M.,	Pater, M.
	sun.	consul.	sparrow.	father.
		SINGULAR	з.	
Nom.	sõl	consul	passer	pater
Gen.	sõl is	consul is °	passer is	patr is
Dat.	sõlT	consul	passer ī	patr 1
Acc.	sõl em	cõnsul em	passerem	patrem
Voc.	sõl	consul	passer	pater
Abl.	sől e	consule	passere	patre
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	sōl ēs ¹	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patrēs
Gen.		cōnsul um	passer um	patr um
Dat.	sõl ibus	consul ibus	passer ibus	patr ibus
Acc.	sõlēs	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs
Voc.	sõlēs	consul ēs	passer ēs	patrēs
Abl.	sõl ibus	consul ibus	passer ibus	patr ibus
	Pästor, M.,	Leŏ, м.,	Virgō, F.,	Carmen, N.,
	shepherd.	lion.	maiden.	song.
	1	SINGULAR	t.	
Nom.	pāstor	leŏ	virgð	carmen
Gen.	pāstōris	leōn is	virginis	carminis
Dat.	pāstōrī	leōn 1	virginI	carmin
Acc.	pāstōr em	leōn em	virgin em	carmen
Voc.	pāstor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen
Abl.	pāst ōre	leőn e	${ m virgin}{f e}$	carmin e
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	pāstōr ēs	leones	virgin ēs	carmin a
Gen.	pāstor um	leōn um	virgin um	carmin um
Dat.	pāstēr ibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	carmin ibus
Acc.	pāstōr ēs	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	carmin a
Voc.	pāstör ēs	leon ēs	virgin ēs	carmina
Abl.	pāstēr ibus	le ōnibus	virgin ibus	carmin ibu s

1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—

1) That the stems are sol, consul, passer, patr, 2 pastor, leon, virgon, and oarmen.

¹ Many monosyllables want the Gen. Plur.; see 133, 5.

² That is, the stem is patr when followed by a vowel; but when r becomes final, h svelops e before it, and patr becomes pater; see 29, note.

- 2) That virgo (virgon) has the variable vowel, o, i, and carmen, e, i.
- 3) That in the Nominative and Vocative Singular s, the usual case-suffix for masculine and feminine nouns, is omitted, and that in those cases the stem $p\bar{d}st\bar{b}r$ shortens o, while $le\bar{b}n$ and virgon drop n; see 21, 2, 2), and 36, 5, 3).
- 2. Hiems, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular. Also sanguis (for sanguins), blood, and Salamis (for Salamins), Salamis, which drop n before s; see 36.3, note 3.
- 3. PASSER, PATER.—Most nouns in er are declined like passer, but those in ter, and a few others, are declined like pater; see 77, 2.
- 4. Leŏ, Vireŏ.—Most nouns in o are declined like leŏ, but those in dč and gŏ, with a few others, are declined like virgŏ; see 72, with exceptions.
 - 5. Four stems in or change o to u; see 77, 4.
 - 6. For the LOCATIVE IN THE THIRD DECLENSION, see 66, 4.
 - 7. For Synopsis of Declension, see 72, 75-77.

61. STEMS ENDING IN S.

	Flös, m.,	Jūs, n.,	Opus, N.,	Corpus, N.
	flower.	right.	work.	body.
		SINGU	LAR.	
Nom.	flös	jūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	flör is	jūr is	oper is	corporis
Dat.	flör T	jūr T	oper T .	corporT
Acc.	flör em	jūs	opus	corpus
Voc.	flōs	jūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flör e	jūr e	$\mathrm{oper}\mathbf{e}$	eorpor e
		PLUR	AL.	
Nom.	flör ës	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Gen.	flör um	jūr um	oper um	corporum
Dat.	flör ibus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus
Acc.	flör ēs	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Voc.	flör ēs	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Abl.	flör ibus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- That the stems are flos, jūs, opos, and corpos.
- 2) That opus has the variable vowel, e, u, and corpus, o, u.
- That s of the stem becomes r between two vowels: flos, floris (for flosis); see 31, 1.
 - 4) That the Nom. and Voc. Sing. omit the case-suffix; see 60, 1, 3).
 - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see 79, 80, 82-84.

¹ Opos occurs in early Latin. In os, from the Primary Suffix as (320), o was weakened to u in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing. of opus and corpus, while in all the other case-forms it was weakened to e in opus, but retained unchanged in corpus; see 22.

CLASS II .- I STEMS.

62. Stems ending in **I.**—Nouns in **is** and **ēs**, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, F.,	Turris, F.,	Īgnis, M.,	Hostis, M. & F.,	Nūbēs, 2 F.,
	cough.	tower.	fire.	enemy.	cloud.
			SINGULAR.		
Nom	tuss is	turr is	īgn is	hostis	nūb ēs
Gen.	tuss is	turr is	īgn is	host is	nūb is
Dat.	tussī	turrI	ign ï	hostI	nūb ī
Acc.	tuss im	turr im ı, en	n Ignem	hostem	nüb em
Voc.	tuss is	turr is	īgu is	hostis	nūb ēs
Abl.	tussI	turr ī , e	īgn ī , e	hoste	nübe
			PLURAL.		
Nom	tuss ēs	turr ōs	īgn ēs	host ēs	nűb és
Gen.	tuss ium	turr ium	îgn iu m	ı hostiumı	nūb ium
Dat.	tuss ibus	turr ibus	īgn ibu	s host ibus	nūb ibus
Acc.	tuss ēs , Is	turr ēs , īs	ĭgn ēs , 1	is host ēs , is	nūb ēs , īs
Voc	tuss ēs	turr ēs	īgn ēs	host ēs	nüb ēs
Abl.	tuss ibus	turr ibus	īgn ibu	s hostibus	nūb ibus

I. PARADIGMS.—Observe—

1. That the stems are tussi, turri, igni, hosti, and nubi.3

2. That the case-endings, including the characteristic i, which disappears in certain cases, are as follows:

6	INGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom.	is, ës	ēs	
Gen.	is	ium	
Dat.	ī	ibus	
Acc.	im, em	ēs, is	
Voc.	is	ēs	
Abl.	ī, e	ibus	

¹ That is, baving as many syllables in the Nom. Sing. as in the Gen. Sing.

³ Nouns in is. Gen. is, are best treated as i-stems, aithough some of them were originally s-stems (61). Thus, originally the stem of nibis was itself nibis, but s was finally treated as the Nom. suffix, and the word was accordingly declined like the large class of i-nouns mentioned under 62, V. The origin of i-stems is obscure. A few correspond to i-stems in the cognate tongues, as ignis, oris, turris; a few are weakened from a-stems or o-stems, as foris, a door, Gr. θύρα, imber=imbris, rain-storm, Gr. δμβρος; some are formed from s-stems, as nibis, just mentioned. Upon the general subject of i-stems, see Roby, pp. 186-149; Schleicher, pp. 384, 432, 453; Corssen, I. 281, 571, 783 seq.; II. 227; Merguet, pp. 36-40, 51, 67, 95 etc.

II. Like TUSSIS-Acc. im, ABL. I-are declined-

- 1. Būris, plough-tail; rāvis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst.
- 2. In the Singular: (1) Names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the Genitive: Tiberis, Hispalis; see 582. (2) Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and some others.
 - III. Like TURRIS-Acc. im, em, ABL. ī, e-arc declined-

Clāvis, key; febris, fever; messis, harvest; nāvis, ship; puppic, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sēmentis, sowing; strigilis, strigil.

1. Araris, or Arar (for Araris), the Saône, and Liger (for Ligeris), the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. ī, e.

IV. Like IGNIS-Acc. em, ABL. I, e-are declined-

Amnis, river; anguis, serpent; avis, bird; bīlis, bile; cīvis, citizen; ciāssis, fleet; collis, hill; fīnis, end; orbis, circle; postis, post; unguis, nail, and a few others.

Note 1.—Adjectives in er (for ris) and those in is have the Ablative in $\bar{\imath}$ (153, 154). Accordingly, when such adjectives are used substantively, the $\bar{\imath}$ is generally retained: September, September, September; 2 familiāris, familiāri, friend. But adjectives used as proper names have $e: Juven\bar{\imath}lis, Juven\bar{\imath}le$, Juvenal.

Note 2.—Imber (for imbris), storm; vesper (for vesperis), evening, and a few others sometimes have the Ablative in $\overline{1}$.

- V. Like HOSTIS—Acc. em, ABL. e—are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under II., III., and IV.3
 - VI. Like NUBES are declined all nouns in es, Gen. is.4

63. Stems ending in I.—Neuters in e, al, and ar.

Ma	re, sea.	Animal, animal.	Calcar, sp	ur.
		SINGULAR.		Case-Endings.
Nom.	mar e	animal	calcar	e 6
Gen. 1	mar is	animāl is	calcār is	is
Dat.	mar x	animālī	calcarī	1
Acc. 1	mare	animal	calcar	e 6
Voc. 1	mare	animal	calcar	e 6
Abl.	mar ī 5	animāl T	calcārī	1

¹ The shortening of Araris to Arar and of Liger is to Liger is similar to the shortening of puerus to puer; see 51, 2, 4); 36, 5, 2), note.

² Names of months are adjectives used substantively. Originally *mēnsis*, month, was understood.

² Except canis and juvenis, which are consonant-stems, but have assumed i in the Nom. Sing. In the plural they have um in the Gen and ēs in the Acc. Apis, mēnsis, and volucris often have um for ium in the Gen.

⁴ Except struës and vätës, which generally have um in Gen. Pl., and sëdës, which has um or ium. Compës, Gen. edis, has also ium.

[·] See 2 below.

⁴ The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting.

PLTI	RAL.

Nom.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Gen.	mar ium	animāl ium	calcăr ium	ium
Dat.	maribus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus
Acc.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcăr ia	ia
Voc.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Abl.	maribus	animālibus	calcăr ibus	ibus

- 1. PARADIGMS.—Observe—
- 1) That the stem-ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of mare, and dropped in the same cases of animal (for animale) and calcar (for calcare); see 24, 1, note; 27; 21, 2, 2).
 - 2) That the case-endings include the characteristic i.
- 2. The following have e in the Ablative Singular:—(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.—(2) Generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.

Note.—Neuters in ar, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant-stems: nectar, nectar; also sat, sat, and far, corn.

64. Stems ending in i.—Nouns in s and x generally preceded by a consonant.

	Cliëns, M. & F.,	Urbs, F.,	Arx, F.,	Mūs,¹ M.,
	client.	city.	citadel.	mouse.
		SINGULAR.		
Nom.	cliens	urbs	arx 3	mūs
Gen.	clientis 1	urbis	arcis	mūr is 4
Dat.	client	urb I	arcI	mūr ī
Acc.	clientem	urb em	arcem	mūrem
Voc.	eliēns	urbs	arx	mūs
Abl.	cliente	urbe	arce	müre
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	clientes	urb ēs	arces	mür ēs
Gen.	clientium	arbium	arcium	mūr inu
Dat.	clientibus	urb ibus	arcibus	mūribus
Acc.	clientes, Is	urbēs, 1s	arces, Is	mūr ēs , īs
Voc.	clientes	urb ēs	arces	mūrēs
Abl.	clientibus	urb ibus	arcibus	mūr ibus

¹ Cliëns is for clientis, urbs for urbis, arx for arcis, and mūs for mūsis: see 36, b, t), note. Mūs. originally an s-stem, Greek μῦς, became an i-stem in Latin by assuming i.

² The vowel e is here short before nt, but long before ns; see 16, note 2. Indeed, it seems probable that nt and nd shorten a preceding vowel, as ns lengthens it. See Müller, p. 27; Ritschl, Rhein, Museum, xxxi., p. 488.

³ X in arx=cs, c belonging to the stem, and s being the Nom. suffix.

⁴ Mūris is for mūsis; s changed to r between two vowels, see 31, 1

- 1. PARADIGMS.—Observe—
- 1) That the stems are clienti, urbi, arci, and mūri.
- 2) That these nouns are declined in the singular precisely like consonant stems, and in the plural precisely like all other masculine and feminine i-stems.¹
 - 2. This class of i-stems includes-
- 1) Most nouns in ns and rs: 2 clients, clientis, client; cohorts, cohortis, cohort.
- 2) Monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant, and a few in s and x preceded by a vowel: urbs, city; arx, citadel; lis, strife; nox, night.
- 3) Names of nations in ās and īs, or, if plural, in ātēs and ītēs: Arpīnās, n.!. Arpīnātēs, an Arpinatian, the Arpinates; Samnīs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnītes.
- 4) Optimātēs, the aristocracy; Penātēs, the household gods, and occasionally other nouns in $\bar{a}s$.

Note 1.— $Car\check{o}$, flesh, has a form in is, carnis (for carinis), from which are formed $carn\check{i}$, carnium, etc.

Note 2.—Pars, part, sometimes has partim in the Accusative.

NOTE 3.— $R\bar{u}s$, country, sors, lot, supellec, furniture, and a few other words sometimes have the Ablative in $\bar{\iota}$.

65. Summary of I-Stems.—To I-stems belong—

- 1. All nouns in is and ēs which do not increase in the Genitive; see 62. Here belong also—
 - 1) Names of months in ber (for bris): September, October, etc.; see 62, N. 1.
- 2) The following nouns in ber and ter (for bris and tris): imber, storm: linter, boat; uter, leathern sack; venter, belly; generally also \bar{l} nsuber, an Insubrian.
- 2. Neuters in e, al (for ale) and ar (for are); see 63; also 63, 2, note.
- 3. Many nouns in s and x—especially (1) nouns in ns and rs. and (2) monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant; see 64. 2.

i Nouns thus declined are most conveniently treated as i-nonns, though the stem appears to end in a consonant in the Sing.. and in i in the Plur. In some of these nouns the stem has lost its final i in the Sing., while in others it ended originally in a consonant, but afterward assumed i in the Plur., at least in certain cases; see 62, I., footnote.

² Some of these often have um in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as parent, generally has.

Except (ops) opis and the Greek nouns, gryps. lynx, sphinx.

Namely, faux, glis. lis, mūs, nic, now, os (ossis), ris, generally fraus and mūs.

66. SPECIAL PARADIGMS.

Stis,	M. & F.,	Bōs, m. & f., ox, cow.	, ,	Senex, M., old man.	
		SI	NGULAR.		
Nom.	នធិន	bōs¹	nix	senex	vīs
Gen.	su is	bovis	niv is	sen is	vīs 2
Dat.	sul	bov1	niv ī	sen¶	v 1 2
Acc.	suem	bovem	nivem	senem	vina
Voc.	sūs	bōs	nix	senex	vīs
Abl.	sue	bove	nive	$\operatorname{sen}\mathbf{e}$	v T
		I	PLURAL.		
Nom.	su ēs	bov ēs	niv ēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Gen.	su um	{ bowm } bowm	niv ium	sen um	vīr illi l
Dat.	su ibus su bus	j bõ bus ¹ ! bü bus ¹	niv ibus	senibus	vīr ibus
Acc.	su ēs	bov ēs	niv ēs	sen ës	vīr ēs
Voc.	su ēs	bovēs	nivēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
) bõ bus) b õbus	niv ibus	sen ibus	vīr ibus

- 1. The Stems are su; bov; nig (nix=nigs), niv, nivi; senec, sen; vī (sing.), vīri (for vīsi, plur.); see 31, 1.
- 2. Sūs, and grūs, crane, the only u stems in this declension, are deelined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where grūs is regular: gruibus.
- 3. JUPPITER, Jupiter, is thus declined: Juppiter, Jovis, Joven, Juppiter, Jove. Stems. Juppiter and Jov.
- 4. LOCATIVE.—Many names of towns have a Locative Singular in I or edenoting the place in which (45, 2). Thus:

Nom.	Karthāgŏ,		Carthage,	Tībur,		Tibur,
Gen.	Karthāginis,	of	Carthage,	Tībur i	s, of	Tibur,
Dat.	Karthāgin¶,	for	Carthage,	Tībur ī	, for	Tibur,
Acc.	Karthäginem,		Carthage,	Tībur,		Tibur,
Voc.	Karthāgŏ,	0	Carthage,	Tibur,	0	Tibur,
Abl.	Karthägine,	from	Carthage,	Tibure	, from	Tibur,
Loc.	Karthägin I or e	, at	Carthage.	Tībur ī	or e, at	Tibur.

⁴ Bôs = bovs, bous; bôbus, būbus = bovibus, boubus.

¹ The Gen, and Dat, Sing. -vis, vi-are rare.

³ For nigvi, from which nig is formed by first dropping i and then v; see 27, 36, note 1.

Vi is formed from visi by first dropping i and then s.

67. CASE-SUFFIXES AND CASE-ENDINGS.

SINGULAR.

C	ONSONANT !	Этемв.	I-STEMS	
MASO. A	ND FEM.	NEUT.	MASO. AND FRM.	NEUT.
Nom.	s,—2	2	is, ēs, s	0,-2
Gen.	is	is	is	is
Dat.	ī	I	ī	1
· Acc.	em		im, em	e,
Voc.	8		is, ēs, s	e,—
Abl.	е	e	ī, e	1
		PL	URAL.	
Nom.	ēs	a	ēs	ia
Gen.	um	um	ium	ium
Dat.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus
- Acc.	ěs	8	ēs, īs	ia
Voc.	ēs	a	ěs	ia
Abl.	ibus	ibus	ibus	itus

Note.—The following irregular case-endings occur: 3

- 1. E, for i, in the Dat. Sing .: 4 aere for aeri.
- 2. Eis, for is, in the Acc. Plur. : civeis for civis, cives.
- 8. For Greek Endings, see 68.

GREEK NOUNS.

68. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek. The following are examples:

Lampas, F.,	Phryx, M. & F., Phrygian.	Hērōs, M.,
wren.	Furyguan.	nero.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. lampas	Phryx	hēr ōs
Gen. lampadis, os	Phrygis, os	hērō is
Dat. lampadī, i	Phryg ī, i	hērōī, i
Acc. lampadem, a	Phrygem, a	hērō em, a
Voc. lampas	Phryx	hērō s
Abl. lampade	Phryg e	hērō e

On the distinction between Case-Suffixes and Case-Endings, see 46, 1, and 47, note 3.

² The dash denotes that the case-ending is wanting.

^{*} To these should be added for early Latin -1) us and es in the Gen. Sing.: hominus = hominus; satisfies = satisfies; 2) id and \hat{e} in the Abl. Sing.: conventionid = conventione; patr \hat{e} = patre; 3) is and eis in the Nom. Plur. of i-nouns: fineis, finis = fines. On the Case-Endings of the Third Declension in early Latin, see Wordsworth, pp 68-73; Kühner, I., pp. 173-179.

⁴ This e is generally long.

		PLURA	L.	~
Nom.	lampadēs, es	Phryg ēs , es		hērōēs, es
Gen.	lampadum	Phrygum		hērõum
Dat.	lampad ibus	Phrygibus		hērō ibus
Acc.	lampadēs, as	Phryges, as		hērō ēs, as
Voc.	lampadēs, es	Phryges, es		hērō ēs , es
Abl.	lampad ibus	Phryg ibus		hērō ibus
	Periclēs, M.,	Paris, M.,	Dīdō, F.,	Orpheus, M.,
	Pericles.	Paris.	Dido.	Orpheus.
		SINGUL	AR.1	
Nom.	Pericl ēs	Paris	Dīdō	Orpheus ?
Gen.	Periclis, 1	Paridis, os	Dīdūs, on is	Orph-eos, el, 1
	Pericla, i	Paridī, i	Dīdō, ōnī, ōni	Orph-e1, ei, 1, eo
Acc,	Periclem, en, en	Parid em, a Pari m, i n	Dīdō, ōnem	Orphe a, eum
Voc.	Periclēs, es, ē	Pari	Dīdō	Orpheu
Abl.	Pericl e	Paride	Dīdō, ōne	Orphe ō

1. Observe that these Paradisms fluctuate in certain cases—(1) between the Latin and the Greek forms: lampadis, os; lampadem, a; hērōēs, as:—(2) between different declensions: Perioles, between Dec. I., Periolen, Periole, Dec. II., Perioli (Gen.), and Dec. III., Periolis, etc.: Orpheos, between Dec. II., Orpheos, orpheos, etc., and Dec. III., Orpheos, etc.

2. Nouns in ys have Gen. yos, ys, Acc. ym, yn: Othrys, Othrym,

Othryn.

- 3. The Vocative Singular drops s—(1) in nouns in eus, ys, and in proper names in ās, Gen. antis: Atlās, Atlā:—(2) generally in nouns in is, and sometimes in other words: Pari.
- 4. In the GENITIVE PLURAL, the ending on occurs in a few titles of books: Metamorphöses (title of a poem), Metamorphöseön.
- 5. In the DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL the ending si, before yowels sin, occurs in poetry: Troades, Troasin.
- 6. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative have os in the Singular and è in the Plural: m.los, melè, song.

SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

I. Nouns ending in a Vowel.

69. Nouns in a:3	Genitive in atis:	Stem in at:
poěma, poem,	poēmatis,	poēmat.

¹ The Plural is of course generally wanting; see 130, 2.

² Eu is a diphthong in the Nom. and Voc.; ei sometimes a diphthong in the Gwa and Dat.

^{*} These are of Greek origin

70. Nouns in e: Genitive in is: Stem in i:

mare, sea, maris, mari.

71. Nouns in I: Genitive in is: Stem in i:

sināpī, mustard, sināpis, sināpi.

Note.—Many nouns in i are indeclinable. Compounds of meli have itis in the Genitive: oxymeli, oxymelitis, oxymel.

72. Nouns in ō or ō: Genitive in ōnis: Stem in ōn: leŏ, lion, leŏnis, leŏn.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in—

- 1. onis :- most national names : Macedo, Macedonis, Macedonian.
- 2. inis: ²—Apollō; homö, man; nēmö, nobody; turbö, whirlwind; and nouns in do and go: grandö, grandinis, hail; virgö, virginis, maiden; except—harpagö, onis; ligö, onis; praedo, onis, also comedo, cūdō, mangō, spadō, unedo, ūdō.
- 3. nis: -caro, carnis (for carinis), flesh; see 64, 2, note 1.
- 4. ēnis :- Anio, Anienis, river Anio; Nerio, Nerienis.
- 5. ūs:-a few Greek feminines: Dīdō, Dīdūs; see 68.
- 73. Nouns in y³: Gen. in yis (yos, y

 s): Stem in y:
 misy, copperas, misyis (yos, y

 s), misy.

II. Nouns ending in a Mute or Liquid.

74. Nouns in c: ālēc, ālēcis, pickle; lāc, lactis,4 milk.

75. Nouns in 1: Genitive in lis: Stem in 1:

söl, sun, sölis, sölis, sölis. Notz.—Fel, fellis, gall; mel, mellis, honey; sül, salts, salt. On neuters in al, see 63.

76. Nouns in n: Genitive in nis: Stem in n:

paeān, paean, paeānis, paeān.

flümen, stream, flüminis, flümen, in.

Note I.—Nouss in en have the variable radical vowel—e, i; see 60, 1, 2).

NOTE 2.—There are a few Greek words in on, Gen. in onis, ontis, St. in on. ont: gêdôn, aêdonis, nightingale; Xenophôn, Xenophôntis, Xenophon.

77. Nouns in r: Genitive in ris: Stem in r: carcer, prison, carceris, carcer.

- 1. Nouns in ar, ar: (1) ar, G. aris, St. ari: lār, lāris, house; (2) pār. paris, pair; fār, farris, corn; hēpar, hēpatis, liver. For ar, G. āris, and ar G aris, see 63.
- Nouns in ter: Gen. in tris: paler, patris, father; except later, lateris. tile; iter, itineris, way; Juppiter, Jovis; and Greek nouns: crātēr, crātēris, bowl

¹ These are of Greek origin.

² Stem in on, in, or oni, ini, ni; see 60, 1, 2).

³ Nouns in v are of Greek origin, and are often indeclinable.

⁴ The only nouns in c.

Norg. - Imber and names of months in ber have bris in the Genitive; imber, imbris, shower; September, Septembris, September; see 62, IV., notes 1 and 2.

- 3. Nouns in or: G. oris, St. or: pastor, pastoris, shepherd; but a few have G. oris, St. or: arbor, arboris, tree; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. But cor, cordis, heart.
- 4. Four in ur: G. oris, St. or: ebur, ivory; femur, thigh; jecur, liver; robur, strength; but femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, jecineris, and jocineris.

78. Nouns in ut:

Genitive in itis:

Stem in ut, it:

caput, head,

capitis,

caput, it.

III. Nouns ending in S.

79 Nouns in as:

Genitive in ātis:

Stem in at .

aetās, age,

aetātis,

aetāt.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. aris: -mās, maris, a male; -stem, mas, mari; see 31, 1.
- 2. āsis: -vās, vāsis, vessel.1
- 3. assis: as, assis, an as (a coin).
- 4. antis: only masculine Greek nouns: adamās, antis, adamant.

Note. - Anas, duck, and neuter Greek nouns in as have atis: anas, anatis. surety, Arcas, Arcadian, and feminine Greek nouns in as have adis: vas, vadis, lampas, lampadis.2

80. Nouns in es:

Genitive in is:

Stem in i:3

nūbēs, cloud,

nūbis, nūbi.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ēdis :- hērēs, hērēdis, heir; mercēs, reward.
- 2. edis :- pēs, pedis, foot, and its compounds : compēs, edis, a fetter.
- 3. eris :- Cerēs, Cereris,4
- 4. ētis: -quiēs, rest, with compounds, inquiēs, requiēs, and a few Greek words: lebēs, tapēs.
- 5. etis :- abiēs, fir-tree; ariēs, ram; pariēs, wall.

Notz .- Bes, bessis, two-thirds; aes, aeris, copper; praes, praedis, surety.

81. Nouns in es:

Genitive in itis:

Stem in et, it:

miles, soldier,

militis,

milet, it.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. etis:—interpres, interpreter; seges, crop; teges, covering.
- 2. idis: -obses, hostage; praeses, president; see 57, 2.

See 61, 1, 3).

¹ Vās is the only stem in s which does not change s to r between two vowels; see 61, 1, 3).

² Greek nouns sometimes have ados for adia.

³ But see 64. 1.

82. Nouns in is:

Genitive in is:

Stem in 1:

avis, bird,

avis,

avi.

EXCEPTIONS, -Genitive in

- eris:—cinis, cineris, ¹ ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; vōmis, ploughshare.
- idis:—capis, cup; cassis, helmet; cuspis, spear; lapis, stone; promulsis, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes ibis, and tigris.
- 3. inis: -pollis or pollen, flour; sanguis, blood.

Note.—Glis, glīris, dormouse; līs, lītis, strife; sēmis, sēmissis, half an as; Dīs. Dītis; Quirīs, Quirītis; Samnīs, Samnītis.

83. Nouns in os:

Genitive in ōris:

Stem in os:

mos, custom,

moris,

mos.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- ōtis:—cōs, cōtis, whetstone; dōs, dowry; nepōs, grandson; sacerdōs, priest; and a few Greek words.
- 2. odis:-cūstos, cūstodis, guardian; see 36, 2.
- 3. ōis :—a few masculine Greek nouns : hērōs, hero ; Mīnōs, Trōs.

Note.—Arbos or arbor, arboris, tree; os. ossis, bone; bos, bovis, ox; see 66.

84. Nouns in ūs, Gen. in ūris or ūtis: stem in ūs or ūt.

- 1. $\bar{\mathbf{uris}} := -cr\bar{u}s$, leg; $j\bar{u}s$, right; $j\bar{u}s$, soup; $m\bar{u}s$, mouse; $p\bar{u}s$, pus; $r\bar{u}s$, country; $t\bar{u}s$ ($th\bar{u}s$), incense; $tell\bar{u}s$, earth.
- ūtis: juventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, virtue; see 36, 2.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ūdis:-incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, dovetail.
- 2. uis:—grūs, gruis, crane; sūs, swine.
- 3. untis:—a few Greek names of places: Trapezūs, untis.
- 4. odis:—Greek compounds in pūs: tripūs, tripodis, tripod.

Note.—Fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, laudis, praise; see 64, 2, 2), foot-note. For Greek nouns in eus, see 68.

85. Nouns in us: Gen. in eris or oris: stem in os.

- 1. eris:—latus, lateris, side: stem, latos. So also: acus, foedus, fūnus, genus, glomus, mūnus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rūdus, scelus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, Venus, viscus, vulnus.
 - 2. oris:—corpus, corporis, body: stem, corpos. So also decus, dedecus,

¹ Stem cinis, ciner for cines with variable vowel i, e; see 24, 1; 31, 1; and 57, 2.
² Greek nouns sometimes have ides or even ics for idis; Salamis has Salaminis; Simoestis.

³ See 61, 1, foot-note.

facinus, faenus, frīgus, lepus, lītus, nemus, pectus, pecus, penus, pīgnus, stercus, tempus, tergus.

Note. - Pecus, pecudis, a head of cattle; Ligus, Liguris, Ligurian; see 31.

86. Nouns in ys: 1 Genitive in yis, yos, $\bar{y}s$: Stem in y: Othrys, Othryos, Othry.

87. Nouns in bs: Genitive in bis: Stem in bi: 2
urbs, city, urbis, urbi.

88. Nouns in ms: Genitive in mis: Stem in m: hiems, winter, hiemis, hiem.

89. Nouns in eps: Genitive in ipis: Stem in ep, ip. princeps, prince, principis, princep, ip.

Note.—But auceps, aucupis, fowler. Other nouns in ps retain the stem-vowel anchanged; merops, meropis, bee-eater. Gryps, griffin, has gryphis.

90. Nouns in s after 1, n, or r: Gen. in tis: Stem in ti:

puls, broth,
mens, mind,
ars, art,
artis,
gen. in tis: Stem in ti:
pultis,
mentis,
mentis,
artis.

Note.—Frôns, frondis, leaf; glans, glandis, acorn; jūglans, jūglandis, walnut; see 64, 2.

IV. Nouns ending in X.

91. Nouns in āx: Genitive in ācis: Stem in āc: pāx, peace, pācis, pāc.

NOTE.—Fax, facis, torch; so also a few Greek nouns. Astyanax, actis; so a few Greek names of men.

92. Nouns in ēx: Genitive in ēcis or ēgis: Stem in ēc, ēg:

1. ēcis:—ālēx, pickle; vcrvēx, wether.

2. $\overline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{gis} := lex$, law; rex, king, and their compounds.

93. Nouns in ex: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic, ec: jūdex, judge, jūdicis, jūdic, ec.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ecis :-nex, murder ; fēnisex, mower ; (prex), precis, prayer.
- 2. egis:—grex, flock; aquilex, water-inspector.
- 3. igis: rēmex, rēmigis, rower; see 21, 1.

Note.—Face, faccis, less; sener, senis, old man (66); supeller, supellectilis, familiare.

94. Nouns in Ix: Genitive in Icis: Stem in Ic: radix, root, radics, radics,

² Dissyllables have the stem in b.

¹ These are of Greek origin; a few of them have ydis; chlame's, chlamydis, cleak.

Dissyllables in ns have the stem in t,

95. Nouns in ix: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic: calix, cup, calicis, calic.

NOTE.—Nix, nivis (66), snow; strix, strigis, screech-owl; a few Gallic names also have the Genitive in igis: Dumnorix, Orgėtorix.

96. Nouns in ox or ox: vox, vocis, voice; nox, noctis, night.

Note.—There are also a few national names in ox, Gen. in ocis or ogis: Cappadox, Cappadocis; Allobrox, Allobrogis.

97. Nouns in ux: Genitive in ucis: Stem in uc:
dux, leader, ducis, duc.

Note 1.—Lūx, lūcis, light; Pollūx, Pollūcis, Pollux; frūx, frūgis, fruit.

NOTE 2.—Greek nouns in www are variously declined: Eryx, Erycis, Eryx; bombyx, bombygis, silkworm; Styw, Stygis, Styx; coccyw, coccygis, cuckoo; onyx, onychis, onyx.

98. Nouns in x after n or r: Genitive in cis: Stem in ci: arx, citadel, arcis, arci.

Note 1 .- Conjunx or conjux, conjugis, spouse.

Note 2.—Most nouns in w preceded by n are of Greek origin: lynx, lyncis, lynx; phalanx, phalanqis, phalanx.

GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

- 99. Nouns in the third declension ending in
- ŏ, or, ōs, er, and in ēs and es increasing in the Genitive, are masculine: sermō, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; pēs, Genitive pedis, foot.
 - 100. Nouns in O are masculine, except the Feminines, viz. :
 - Nouns in ŏ, Gen. inis, except cardŏ, ōrdŏ, turbŏ, masc., cupīdŏ and margŏ, masc. or fem.
 - 2. Carŏ, flesh, and the Greek Argō, ēchō, echo.
 - Most abstract and collective nouns in io: ratio, reason; contio, an assembly.
 - 101. Nouns in OR are masculine, except-
 - 1. The Feminine: arbor, tree.
 - 2. The Neuters: -ador, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
 - 102. Nouns in OS are masculine, except-
 - 1. The Feminines:—arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; eos, dawn.
 - 2. The Neuter: 5s, mouth.

Note.—0s, bone, and a few Greek words in os are neuter: chaos, chaos.

103. Nouns in ER are masculine, except-

¹ That is, having more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative.

- 1. The Feminine: -linter, boat (sometimes masc.).
- The Neuters:—(1) cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder; vēr, spring; verber, scourge;—(2) botanical names in er, Gen. eris: acer, maple-tree; pāpāver, poppy.
- 104. Nouns in **ĒS** and **ES** increasing in the Genitive are masculine, except—
- The Feminines:—compēs, fetter; mereēs, reward; merges, sheaf; quiēs, rest (with its compounds); seges, crop; teges, mat; sometimes āles, bird, and quadrupēs, quadruped.
- 2. The Neuter :- aes, copper.
- 105. Nouns of the third declension ending in
- ās, as, is, ys, x, in ēs not increasing in the Genitive, and in s preceded by a consonant,

are feminine: aetās, age; nāvis, ship; chlamys, cloak; pāx, peace; nūbēs, cloud; urbs, city.

- 106. Nouns in AS and AS are feminine, except-
- The Masculines:—ās, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. antis.
- 2. The Neuters :- vas, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. atis.
- 107. Nouns in IS and YS are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- Nouns in ālis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: nātālis, birthday; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood. But a few of these are occasionally feminine: eanis, amnis, cinis, finis, anguis, torquis.
- Axis, axle; būris, plough-tail; callis, path; lensis, sword; lapis, stone; mēnsis, month; orbis, circle; postis, post; pulvis, dust; sentis, brier; torris, brand; vectis, lever; and a few others.
- 3. Names of mountains in ys: Othrys.
- 108. Nouns in X are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- 1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- Nouns in ex and unx; except the feminines: faex, forfex, nex, (prex) supellex.
- Caliz, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; trādux, vine-layer, and a few nouns in yx.
 - 4. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, lynx.
- 109. Nouns in **ĒS** not increasing in the Genitive are feminine, except the *Masculines*, viz.:

Nouns whose gender is determined by Signification (42) may be exceptions to these rules for gender as determined by Endings. Callis is sometimes feminins.

Acinaces, cimeter; sometimes palumbes, dove; and vepres, thorn-bush. Note.—For Greek nouns in es, see 111, note.

- 110. Nouns in ${\bf S}$ preceded by a Consonant are feminine, except the Masculines, viz. :
 - Dēns, tooth; föns, fountain; möns, mountain; pöns, bridge; generally adeps, fat, and rudēns, cable.
 - Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriēns (sōl), east; confluens (amnis), confluence; tridēns (raster), trident; quadrāns (ās), quarter.
 - 3. Chalybs, steel; hydrops, dropsy, and a few other Greek words.
 - Sometimes: forceps, forceps; serpēns, serpent; stirps, stock. Animāns, animal, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.
 - 111. Nouns of the third declension ending in

a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ār, ar, ur, ūs, and us

are neuter: poēma, poem; mare, sea; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; corpus, body.

Note. - A few Greek nouns in es are also neuter: cacoethes, desire, passion.

- 112. Nouns in \mathbf{L} , $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{R}$, and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}$ are neuter, except the Masculines, viz.: Mügil, mullet; $s\bar{a}l_i^1$ salt; $s\bar{c}l$, sun; $l\bar{a}r$, hearth; salar, trout.
- 113. Nouns in N are neuter, except-
- The Masculines:—pecten, comb; rēn, kidney; liēn, spleen; and Greek masculines in ān, ōn, īn, ōn: pacān, paean; canōn, rule.
- The Feminines:—aēdōn, nightingale; aleyōn (haleyōn), kingfisher; ēcōn, image; sindōn, muslin.
- 114. Nouns in **UR** are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.: Furfur, bran; turtur, turtle-dove; vultur, vulture.
- 115. Nouns in US and US are neuter, except-
- 1. The Masculines:—lepus, hare; mūs, mouse; and Greek nouns in pūs.
- The Feminines:—tellūs, earth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in ūs, Gen. ūtis or ūdis: virtūs, virtue; palūs, marsh.

FOURTH DECLENSION: U NOUNS.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in

us-masculine; ū-neuter.

They are declined as follows:

¹ See foot-note, page 47. Sal is sometimes neuter in the singular.

Früctus, fruit. Cornū, horn.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.	
Nom.	früct us	corn ũ	us	ū
Gen.	frūctūs	corn ūs	ūs	üs
Dat.	früctul, ü i	corn ū	uī, ū ⁱ	ū
Acc.	früctum	corn ū	um	a
Voc.	früct us	corn ū	us	a
Abl.	früctü	cornū	ū	ũ
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	früct üs	cornua	ūs	ua.
Gen.	früctuum	cornuum	uum	uum
Dat.	früctibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)
Acc.	früct üs	cornteal	ūs	ua
Voc.	früct üs	cornua	ūs	ua
Abl.	frūct ibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)

- 1. The Stem in nouns of the fourth declension ends in u: frūctu, cornu.
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic u, weakened to i in ibus, but retained in ubus; see 22.
 - 117. The following IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS occur: 2
 - 1. Ubus for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural-
 - 1) Regularly in acus, needle; arcus, bow; and tribus, tribe.
- 2) Often in artus, joint; lacus, lake; partus, birth; portus, harbor; specus, cave; and verū, spit.
 - 3) Occasionally in a few other words, as genū, knee; tonitrus, thunder, etc.
- 2. Uis, the uncontracted form for as, in the Genitive: fractuis for fractus.4
 - 3. Uos, an old form 5 of the Genitive ending: senātuos, 6 of the senate.
- 118. Nouns in us are masculine, those in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ are neuter, but the following in us are—

¹ Thus ui is contracted into it: früctni, früctü.

² To these should be added the rare endings $\vec{n}d$ for \vec{u} in the Abl. Sing., uus for $\vec{u}s$ in the Gen. Sing., and $u\vec{u}s$ for $\vec{u}s$ in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. See Wordsworth, pp. 60–62

³ Generally plural, limba.

⁴ It has been already mentioned (47, note 1) that the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection. The close relationship between the third declension and the fourth will be seen by comparing the declension of frictus, a u-noun of the fourth, with that of grids (66, 2), a u-noun of the third. In fact, if the old Genitive ending uis had not been contracted into is, there would have been no fourth declension whatever. All u-nouns would have belonged to the third declension.

⁵ Compare the Greek Genitive in νος: ἰχθύς, ἰχθύος, fish.

⁶ This was first weakened to senātuis (22), and then contracted to senātūs (23, 2), the classical form.

FEMININE BY Exception:—(1) acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house, manus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe;—(2) Idus, Ides; Quinquatrus, feast of Minerva; generally penus, store, when of this declension; rarely specus, den;—(3) see 42, II.

Note.—The only neuter nouns in common use are cornū, genū, and verū.1

- 119. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of the fourth declension and partly of the second.
- 1. Domus, r., house, has a Locative form domi, at home, and is otherwise declined as follows:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. domus	domūs
Gen. domüs	domuum, domõrum
Dat. domui (domō)	domibus
Acc. domum	domôs, dom ūs
Voc. domus	domūs
Abl. domo (domu)	domibus

- 2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, ficus, laurus, pīnus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in ūs, us, and ū: N. laurus, G. laurūs, D. laurō, A. laurum, V. laurus, A. laurū, etc. So also colus, distaff.
- A few nouns, especially senātus, senate, and tumultus, tumult, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the Genitive ending i of the second; senāti, tumulti.
 - 4. Quercus, oak, regularly of Decl. IV., has quercorum in the Gen. Plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION: E NOUNS.

120. Nouns of the fifth declension end in ēs—feminine, and are declined as follows:

	Dies, day.	Rēs, thing.	
		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.
Nom.	di ēs	r ēs	ës
Gen.	di ēī or di ē	r ěī or r ē	ěī, ē
Dat.	di ēī or di ē	r ēī or r ē	ěī, ē
Acc.	diem	rem	em
Voc.	di ēs	r ēs	ēs
Abl.	di ĕ	r ē	ē

¹ But nenter forms occur in certain cases of other words. Thus, Dat. pecui, Abl pecü. Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. pecua, from obsolete pecü, cattle; also artua from artus; ossua from obsolete ossū, bone; specua from specus.

² Combining forms of the second declension with those of the fourth.

		PLURAL.	
Nom.	di ēs	r ēs	ēs
Gen.	di ērum	r ērum	ērum
Dat.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus
Acc.	di ēs	r ës	ēs
Voc.	dies	r ēs	ēs
Abl.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus

- 1. The STEM of nouns of the fifth declension ends in ē: diē, rē.1
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic \tilde{e} , which appears in all the cases. It is shortened (1) generally in the ending $\tilde{e}i$, when preceded by a consonant, and (2) regularly in the ending em.

Note.—Traces of a Locative in \tilde{e} are preserved in certain phrases found in early Latin, as $di\tilde{e}$ septim \tilde{i} , on the seventh day; $di\tilde{e}$ $crastin<math>\tilde{i}$, on the morrow; $di\tilde{e}$ $proxim\tilde{i}$, on the next day. Cotidië, hodië, pridië, and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

- 121. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS .- The following occur:
- 1. Î or en for ēt in the Gen. and Dat.: acit for aciet, of sharpness; diet for diet; ret for ret; pernicit for perniciet, of destruction.
 - 2. **Es** in the Gen. in early Latin: dies, of a day; rabies, of madness.
 - 122. DEFECTIVE.—Nouns of this declension want the plural, except 2—
 - 1. Dies and res, complete in all their parts.
- 2. Aciès, sharpness; effigiès, image; faciès, face; seriès, series; speciès, appearance; spès, hope, used in the Sing., and in the Nom., Acc., and Voe. Plur.
- 3. Eluvies, used in the Sing. and in the Nom. Plur., and glacies in the Sing. and in the Acc. Plur.
 - 123. GENDER .- Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine-

Excert dies, day, and meridies, midday, masculine, though dies is some times feminine in the singular, especially when it means time.

- 124. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER.
- I. Gender independent of ending. Common to all declensions.

¹ Originally most e-stems appear to have been either a-stems or s-stems. Thus: 1) Most stems in $i\hat{e}$ are modified from $i\hat{a}$: $m\hat{a}teri\hat{a}$, $miteri\hat{a}$, Nom. $m\hat{a}teri\hat{e}$ -s, material; see 25, 1, note, with foot-note 6. In this class of words the Gen. and Dat. Sing. are formed from the stem in $i\hat{a}$, not from that in $i\hat{e}s$: $m\hat{a}teriae$, not $m\hat{a}teri\hat{e}i$. 2) $Di\hat{e}s$, $j\hat{a}d\hat{e}s$, $p\hat{e}b\hat{e}s$, and $sp\hat{e}s$ appear to have been s-stems, modified to \hat{e} -stems, as many s-stems in the third declension were modified to i-stems; see 62, L. 1, foot-note.

² A few plural forms in addition to those here given are sometimes cited, but seem not to occur in writers of the classical period.

³ In early Latin spērēs occurs in the Nom, and Acc. Piur., formed from spēs treated as a stem in s. Thus: spēs, spēsēs, spērēs (31, 1).

^{*} For exceptions, see 43.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Names of Males, of	Names of FEMALES, of	Indeclinable Nouns, In-
RIVERS, WINDS, and	COUNTRIES, TOWNS, ISL-	FINITIVES, and CLAUSES
Months.	ands, and Trees.	used as Nouns.

II. Gender determined by Nominative ending.3

Masculine.	DECLENSION I. Feminine.	Nenter.
ās, ēs.	a, ē.	
er, ir, us, os, ōs.	DECLENSION II.	um, on.
	DECLENSION III.	
ŏ, or, ōs, er, ōs and es increasing in the Genitive.	ās, as, is, ys, x, ēs and es not increasing in the Genitive, s preceded by a consonant.	
us.	DECLENSION IV. DECLENSION V.	i i
	ēs.	

COMPOUND NOUNS.

125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But—

If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: ** respublica = res publica, republic, the public thing; jūsjūrandum = jūs jūrandum, oath.

2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: ** paterfamiliās = pater familiās (49, 1), or pater familiae, the father of a family.

126. PARADIGMS.

		SINGULAR.		
Nom.	rēspūblica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās	
Gen.	rěipüblicae	jūrisjūrandī	patrisfamiliās	
Dat.	rěīpūblicae	jūrījūrandō	patrīfamiliās	
Acc.	rempüblicam	jūsjūrandum	patremfamiliās	
Voc.	respublica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliā s	
Abl.	rēpūblicā	jūrejūrandō	patrefamiliās	

¹ Except names of persons.

³ For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

Words thus formed, however, are not compounds in the strict sense of the term see 340, I., note.

PLURAL.

		Phuran.	
Nom.	rēspūblicae	iūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
Gen.	rērumpūblicārum		patrumfamiliās
Dat.	rēbuspūblicīs		patribusfamiliās
Acc.	rēspūblicās	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
Voc.	rēspūblicae	iūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
Abl.	rēbuspūblicīs		patribusfamiliās

Note 1.—The parts which compose these and similar words are often and perhaps nore correctly written separately: res publica; pater familias or familiae.

NOTE 2.—Paterfamiliās sometimes has familiārum in the plural: patrēsfamiliārum.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

- 127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:
- I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS have but one form for all cases.
- II. DEFECTIVE Nouns want certain parts.
- III. HETEROCLITES (heteroclita 1) are partly of one declension and partly of another.
- IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS (heterogenea 2) are partly of one gender and partly of another.
 - I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS.
- 128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns. The following are the most important:
 - 1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, beta, etc.
 - 2. Foreign words: Jācōb, Riberī; though foreign words often are declined.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

- 129. Nouns may be defective in Number, in Case, or in both Number and Case.
- 130. PLURAL WANTING.—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: Röma, Rome; jūstitia, justice; aurum, gold; jamēs, hunger; sanguis, blood.
 - 1. The principal nouns of this class are:
 - 1) Most names of persons and places: Cicero, Roma.
 - 2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; jūstitia, justice.
 - 3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.
- 4) A few others: meridies, midday; specimen, example; supellex, furniture; ver, spring; vespera, evening, etc.
- 2. Proper names admit the plural to designate families, classes; names or materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate instances, or kinds, of the quality: Scipiones, the Scipios; aera, vessels of copper; avaritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds.
 - 8. In the poets, the plural of abstracts occurs in the sense of the singular.

¹ From έτερος, another, and κλίσις, inflection, i. o., of different declensions.

From exepos, another, and yevos, gender, i. e., of different genders.

131. SINGULAR WANTING .- Many nouns want the singular.

1. The most important of these are:

1) Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: mājōrēs, foreinthers posterī, descendants; geminī, twins; līberī, children.

Many names of cities: Athènae, Athens; Thèbae, Thebes; Delphi,
 Delphi.

3) Many names of festivals: Bacchānālia, Olympia, Sāturnālia.

4) Arma, arms; dīvitiae, riches; exsequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; Idūs, Ides; indūtiae, truce; insidiae, ambuscade; mānēs, shades of the dead; mīnae, threats; moenia, walls; mūnia, duties; nūptiae, nuptials; rēliquiae, remains.

An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by ūnus ex with the plural: ūnus ex liberis, one of the children, or a child.

NOTE.—The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

132. PLURAL WITH CHANGE OF MEANING.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

SINGULAR.

Aedes, temple;
Auxilium, help;
Carcer, prison, barrier;
Castrum, castle, hut;
Comitium, name of a part of the
Roman forum;
Cōpia, plenty, force;
Facultas, ability;
Finis, end;
Fortūna, fortune;
Grātia, gratitude, favor;
Hortus, garden;
Impedimentum, hindrance;
Littera, letter of alphabet;

Lūdus, play, sport; Mōs, custom; Nātālis (diēs), birth-day; Opera, work, service; Pars, part; Rōstrum, beak of ship;

Sal, salt;

PLURAL.

aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house.¹
auxilia, auxiliaries.
carceres, barriers of a race-course.
castra, camp.
comitia, the assembly held in the comitium.

copiae, (1) stores, (2) troops.
facultates, wealth, means.
fines, borders, territory.
fortunae, possessions, wealth.
gratiae, thanks.
horti, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure-grounds.
impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) bagyage,
litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) episite,
writing, letters, literature.

litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) ep writing, letters, literature.
lūdī, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle.
morēs, manners, character.
nātālēs, pedigree, parentage.
operae, workmen.
partēs, (1) parts, (2) a party.
rōstra, (1) beuks, (2) the rostra or tri

rostra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribuns in Rome (adorned with beaks).

sales, witty sayings.

¹ Aedēs and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the piural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

133. DEFECTIVE IN CASE.—Some nouns are defective in case:

- 1. In the Nom., Dat., and Voc. Sing.: —, opis, —, opem, —, ope, help; —, vicis, 1 —, vicem, —, vice, change.
 - 2. In the Nom., Gen., and Voc. Sing.: -, precī, precem, -, prece, prayer.
- 3. In the Nom. and Voc. Sing.: —, dapis, dapī, dapēm, —, dapē, food; —, frūgis, frūgēm, —, frūgē, fruit.
 - 4. In the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: Most nouns of the fifth Decl.; see 122.

Note.—Many neuters are also defective in the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: $f_{i}\bar{u}r$, fel, mel, $p\bar{u}s$, $r\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$, etc., especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases also in the singular: epos, melos; also a few nouns of Decl. IV.: metus, situs, etc.

- 5. In the Gen. Plur.: many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pāx, pix; cor, cōs, rōs; sāl, sōl, lūx.
- 134. Number and Case.—Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other. The following forms occur: fors, forte, chance; luēs, luen, lue, pestilence; diciōnis, diciōnī, diciōnīcm, diciōne, sway. Fās, right, and nefās, wrong, are used in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing.; instar, likeness, nihil, nothing, and opus, need, in the Nom. and Acc.; secus, sex, in the Acc. only. Many verbal nouns in ū and a few other words have only the Ablative Singular: jussū, by order; mandātū, by command; rogātū, by request; sponte, by choice, etc.

III. HETEROCLITES.

135. Of Declensions II. and IV. are a few nouns in us; see 119.

136. Of Declessions II. and III. are-

- 1. Jūgerum, an acre; generally of the second Decl. in the Sing., and of the third in the Plur.: jūgerum, jūgerī; plural, jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus.
- 2. Vās, a vessel; of the third Dccl. in the Sing. and of the second in the Plur.: vās, vāsis; plural, vāsa, vāsōrum.
- 3. Plural names of festivals in ālia: Bacchānālia, Sāturnālia; which are regularly of the third Deel., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in ōrum of the second. Ancīle, a shield, and a few other words have the same peculiarity.

137. Of Declensions III. and V. are-

- 1. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl., but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth.
- 2. Fames, hunger; regularly of the third Deel., except in the Ablative, fame, of the fifth (not fame, of the third).
- 138. Forms in ia and ies.—Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Deel. I., and one in ies of Deel. V.: luxuria, luxuries, luxury; māteria, māteries, material.
- 139. FORMS IN US AND um.—Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: cōnātus, cōnātum, attempt; ēventus, ēventum, event.

¹ Defective also in the Gen. Plur.

140. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventūs (ūtis), youth; poetic, juventa (ae): senectūs (ūtis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertūs (ātis), poverty; poetic, paupertūs (ēt).

IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS.

141. MASCULINE AND NEUTER.—Some masoulines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Jocus, m., jest;

plural, joci, m., joca, n.

Locus, m., place;

plural, loci, m., topics, loca, n., places.

142. Feminine and Neuter.—Some feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Carbasus, f., linen;

plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.

Margarita, f., pearl;

plural, margaritae, f., margarita, n.

Ostrea, f., oyster; plural, ostreae, f., ostrea, n.

- 143. NEUTER AND MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—Some neuters take in the plural a different gender. Thus:
 - 1. Some neuters become masculine in the plural:

Caelum, n., heaven;

plural, caelī, m.

2. Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuter:

Frēnum, n., bridle;

plural, frênî, m., frêna, n. plural, răstrī, m., rāstra, n.

Rāstrum, n., rake; plural, rāstrī, 8. Some neuters become feminine in the plural:

Epulum, n., feast:

plural, epulae, f.

- 144. Forms in us and um.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in us masculine, and one in um neuter: clipeus, clipeum, shield; commentārius, commentārium, commentary.
- 145. HETEROGENEOUS HETEROCLITES.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: cōnātus (ūs), cōnātum (ī), effort; menda (ae), mendum (ī), fault.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is the part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bonus, good; māgnus, great.

Note.—The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies: bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum templum, a good temple. Thus, in the Nom. Sing., bonus is the form of the adjective wnea used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of he third declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS: A AND O STEMS.

21102 1202		CIAMIS.
148. Bonus, <i>good</i> . 1	SINGULAR.	
MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. bonus	bona	bonum
Gen. bon I	bon ae	bon ī
$Dat.$ bon $ar{\mathbf{o}}$	bonae	bon \vec{o}
Acc. bonum	bonzama	bonum
Voc. bone	bona	bonum
Abl. bono	bon ā	$\mathbf{bon}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$
	PLURAL.	
Nom. bon I	bonae	bon a
Gen. bonorum	bonārum	bon õrum
Dat. bonis	bonis	bonis
Acc. bonos	bon ās	bona
Voc. bon I	bonne	bonsa
Abl. bon is	bon Is	bonIs
140 75 4		
149. Liber, free.	SINGULAR.	
MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. līber	līber a	līber um
$Gen.$ līber ${f i}$	līber a e	līber ī
$Dat.$ l $ar{\mathbf{b}}$ er $ar{oldsymbol{o}}$	līber a e	līber ō
Acc. līberum	liber am	līber um
Voc. līber	līber a	liberuum
Abl. līber ō	līber ā	līber ō
	PLURAL.	
Nom. liber	līber ae	līber a
Gen. līber ōrum	līber ārum	līber ōrum
Dat. liber 18	līber īs	līber īs
Acc. liberōs	līber ās	lībera
Voc. līber ī	l I ber ae	līber a
Abl. līber īs	liber 18	līber īs

BONUS is declined in the Masc. like servus of Decl. II. (51), in the Fem. like mēnsa of Decl. I. (48), and in the Neut. like templum of Decl. II. (51). The stems are bone in the Masc, and Neut., and bond in the Fem.

^{*} Liber is declined in the Masc. like puer (51), and in the fem. and Neut. like bonus

150. Aeger, sick.1

	SINGULAR.	
MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom aeger	aegr a	aegrum
Gen. aegrI	aegr ae	aegr ī
Dat. aegro	aegr a e	aegr ō
Acc. · aegrum	aegr am	aegr um
Voc. aeger	aegr a	aegr um
Abl. aegr o	aegr ā	aegr ō
	PLURAL,	
Nom. aegrī	aegr ae	aegr a
Gen. aegr ōrum	aegr ārum	aegr ōrum
Dat. aegrīs	aegr īs	aegr īs
Acc. aegrōs	aegr ās	aegr a
Voc. aegrI	aegr ae	aegr a
Abl. aegrIs	aegr īs	aegr īs

Note.—Most adjectives in er are declined like aeger, but the following in er and ur are declined like liber:

- Asper, rough; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prösper, prosperous; tener, tender; but asper sometimes drops the e, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera, or dextra.
 - 2) Satur, sated; satur, satura, saturum.
 - 3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; aliger, winged.
- 151. IRREGULARITIES. Nine adjectives have in the singular **īus** ² in the Genitive and **ī** in the Dative, and are declined as follows:

	Alius,	inother.		Sõlus, a	lone.	
			SINGULA	AR.		
	MASO. alius ³ alīus aliī alium	FEM. alia alius alii aliam	Neur. aliud ³ alius ⁴ alii aliud	Maso. sõlus sõlius sõli sõlum sõle	Fem. sõla sõlīus sõlī sõlam sõla	Neut. sõlum sõlius sõli sõlum sõlum
Abl.	aliō	alrā	aliō	sõlõ	sõlä	sōlô

¹ AEGER is declined in the masculine like ager (51), and in the feminine and neuter like bonus.

² I in $\bar{\imath}us$ is often shortened by the poets; regularly so in $alter\check{\imath}us$ in dactylic verse (609).

³ Rarely alis and alid. The same stem appears in ali-quis (190, 2), some one; ali-ter, otherwise.

⁴ For aliius by contraction. Alterius often supplies the place of alius

			PLURAL			
Nom.	alij	aliae	alia	s ōl ī	sõlae	sõla
Gen.	aliōrum	aliārum	aliorum	sölörum	sõlärum	sölörum
Dat.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sõlis	sõlīs	sõlīs
Acc.	aliōs	aliās	alia	sõlõs	sõlās	sõla
Voc.				sõlī	sõlae	sõla
Abl.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sõlīs	sõlīs	sõlīs

1. These nine adjectives are: alius, a, ud, another; nūllus, a, um, no one; sõlus, alone; tõtus, whole; ūllus, any; ūnus,¹ one; alter, -tera, -terum,² the other³; uter, -tra, -trum,⁴ which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum,⁴ neither.

Note 1.—The regular forms occasionally occur in the Gen. and Dat. of some of these adjectives.

Note 2.—Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterius utrius; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I STEMS.

- 152. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the Nominative Singular three different forms—one for each gender.
- II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and feminine being the same.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders.
- 153. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in i, and are declined as follows:

	Ācer, sharp.	SINGULAR.	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ācer 6	ācr is	ācr e
Gen.	āer is	ācrīs	ācr is
Dat.	ā er ī	ācrī	āer ī
Acc.	āer em	åer em	āer e
Voc.	ācer	ācris	ācr e
Abl.	ācr ī	ācrī	āer ī

¹ See declension, 175.

² Gen. alterius, Dat. alteri; otherwise declined like liher (149).

³ Or one of two, the one.

⁴ Gen. utrīus, Dat. utrī; otherwise like aeger (150). Neuter like uter.

ACER is declined like \$ignis in the Masc. and Fem., and like mare (63) in the Nout, except in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., Masc., and in the Abl. Sing.

⁶ These forms in er are like those in er of Decl. II, in dropping the ending in the Nom, and Voc. Sing, and in developing final r into er: acer for deris, stem, acri.

		PLURAL.	
	MA80.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ācrēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia
Gen.	ācr ium	ācr ium	ācr ium
Dat.	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	āer ibus
Acc.	ācr ēs , Is	ācrēs, Is	ācr ia
Voc.	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācr ia
Abl.	ācr ibus	ācribus	ācribus

NOTE 1 .- Like ACER are declined :

Alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; celer, swift; equester, equestrian; patäster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, putrid; saliber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged.

2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October, bris.2

NOTE 2.—In the poets and in early Latin the form in er, as $\bar{a}cer$, is sometimes feminine, and the form in is, as $\bar{a}cris$, is sometimes masculine.

154. ADJECTIVES OF TWO ENDINGS are declined as follows:

	Tristis, sad.		Tristior, sadder	.4
		SING	ULAR.	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	trīst is	trīst e	tristior	trīstius
Gen.	trīst is	trīst is	trīstiōr is	trīstiōr is
Dat.	trīstī	trīst ī	trīstiōr ī	trīstiōr ī
Acc.	trīstem	trīste	trīstiör em	trīstius
Voc.	trīst is	trīste	tristior	trīstius
Abl.	trīstī	trīst ī	trīstiōr e (1) ⁵	trīstiōr e (I)
		PLUF	AL.	
Nom.	tristēs	trīst ia	trīstiör ēs	trīstiōr a
Gen.	trīst ium	trīst ium	trīstiðr um	trīstiör um
Dat.	trīst ibus	trīst ibus	trīstiōr ibus	trīstiōr ibus
Acc.	trīst ēs , Is	trīst ia	trīstiōr ēs (īs)	trīstiōra
Voc.	trīst ēs	trīst ia	trīstiōr ēs	trīstiōra
Abl.	trīst ibus	trīst ibus	trīstiōr ibus	trīstiōr ibu s
No	me 1 Tika deli	diar comparatives	as consonant stems gene	rally have the Abl

Note 1.—Like *tristior*, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. Sing, in e, sometimes in $\tilde{\imath}$, the Nom. Plur. Neut. in a, and the Gen. Plur. in um. But complūrės, several, has Gen. Plur. complūrium; Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur. Neut. complūra or complūria; see Plūs, 165.

Note 2.—In poetry, adjectives in is, e, sometimes have the Abl. Sing. in e: cognimine from cogniminis, of the same name.

¹ This retains e in decleusion: celer, celeris, celere; and has um in the Gen. Plur.

² See also 77, 2, note.

³ Trīstis and trīste are declined like acris and acre; the stem is trīsti.

⁴ Tristior is the comparative (160) of tristie; the stem was originally tristies, but it has been modified to tristius (61, 1) and tristior (31).

⁶ Enclosed endings are rare.

155. Adjectives of One Ending generally end in s or x, but sometimes in l or r.

156. Audāx, audacious.1

Fēlix, happy.1

	SINGUI	LAR.	
M. and F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom. audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
Gen, audācis	audāc is	fēlīc is	fēlīc is
Dat. audācī	audāc ī	fēlīc∎	fēlīcī
Acc. audācem	audāx	fēlīc em	fēlīx
Voc. audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
Abl. audācī (e)	audācī (e)	fēlīc ī (e)	fēlīcī (e)
	PLUR.	AL.	
Nom. audācēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia
Gen. audācium	audăc ium	fēlīc ium	fēlīc ium
Dat. andācibus	audāc ibus	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus
Acc. audācēs (Is)	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs (Is)	fēlīc ia
Voc. audācēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia
Abl. audācībus	audāc ibus	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus

157. Amans, loving.

Prūdēns, prudent.

M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom. amans	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen. amantis	amant is 2	prüdent is	prūdent is 2
Dat. amant I	amantI	prūdent ī	prüdentI
Acc. amantem	amāns	prüdent em	prūdēns
Voc. amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Abl. amante (1)	amant e (1)	prūdent ī (e)	prūdent ī (e)
	PLURAL		
Nom. amantēs	amant in	prūdent ēs	prüdent ia
Gen, amantium	amantium	prüdent ium	prüdentimm
Dat. amantibus	amant ibus	prūdent ibus	prüdent ibus
Acc. amantes (Is)	amantist	prūdent ēs (Is)	prüdent ia
Voc. amantēs	amant ia	prūdent ēs	prüdent ia
Abl amantibus	amant i bu	prüdentibus	prüdent ibus

SINGULAR.

Note.—The participle amans differs in declension from the adjective praidins only in the Abl. Sing., where the participle usually has the ending e, and the adjective, i.

¹ Observe that $\bar{\imath}$ in the Abl. Sing., and ia, ium, and $\bar{\imath}s$ in the Plur., are the regular case-endings for i-stems; see 62 and 63.

² According to Ritschl, Schmitz, and others, the e which is long in pradens before ns is short in all other forms of the word, i. e., before nt. In the same manner the a which is long in amāns, is according to Ritschl short in amantis, amanti, etc.: see p. 37, footnote 2. See also Schmitz, pp. 3-26; Ritschl, Rhein, Museum, xxi., p. 488; Müller, p. 27.

Participles used adjectively may of course take 1. A few adjectives have only e in general use:—(1) pauper, paupere, poor; pūbes, pūbere, mature;—(2) those in es, G itis or idis: āles, dēses, dīves, sōspes, superstes; (3) caelebs, compos, impos, princepa

158.	Vetus,	old.	

Memor, mindful.

		SINGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Gen.	veteris	veteris	memoris	memoris
Dat.	veter ī	veter 1	memorI	memorI
Acc.	veterem	vetus	memorem	memor
Voc.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Abl.	veter e (I)	vetere (I)	memorI	memorI
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	veter ēs	veter a	memor ēs	
Gen.	veterum	veterum	memorum	
Dat.	veteribus	veter ibus	memoribus	
Acc.	veterēs (Is;	vetera	memor ē s (Is)	
Voc.	veterēs	vetera	memores	
Abl.	veter ibus	veter ibus	memor ibus	

- 1. NEUTER PLURAL.—Many adjectives like memor, from the nature of their signification, want the Neuter Plural; all others have the ending ia, as fēlicia, prūdentia, except ūber, ūbera, fertile, and vetus, vetera.
- 2. Genitive Plural.—Most adjectives have ium, but the following have um:
- 1) Adjectives of one ending with only e in the Ablative Singular (157, note): pauper, pauperum.
- 2) Those with the Genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame.
 - 3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancipitum, doubtful.
- 4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, opum), inopum, helpless.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be-

- I. Indeclinable: frūgī, frugal, good; nēquam, worthless; mīlle, thou sand; see 176.
- II. DEFECTIVE: (cēterus) cētera, cēterum, the other, the rest; (lūdicer) lūdicra, lūdicrum, sportive; (sōns) sontis, guilty; (sēminex) sēminecis, half dead; paucī, ac, a, few, used only in the Plural; see also 158, 1.
- III. HETEROCLITES.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; exanimus and exanimis, lifeless.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 160. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive degree, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.
- 161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:
 - I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON—by endings.
 - II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON—by adverbs.

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

COMPARATIVE.			SUPERLATO	VE.	
MASC.	Fem.	NEUT.	Masc. issimus	Fем. issima	Neur. issimum

altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest, levis, levior, levissimus, light, lighter, lightest.

NOTE .- VOWEL STEMS lose their final vowel; alto, altior, altissimus.

- 163. IRREGULAR SUPERLATIVES.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:
- Those in er add rimus to this ending: \(^1\) deer, \(\tilde{a}\) erior, \(\tilde{a}\) errimus, sharp
 Note. Vetus has veterrimus; m\(\tilde{a}\) t\(\tilde{u}\) tus, both m\(\tilde{a}\) t\(\tilde{u}\) rimus and m\(\tilde{u}\) t\(\tilde{u}\) is desired, destimus.
 - 2. Six in ilis add limus to the stem:1

facilis, difficilis, easy, difficult, similis, dissimilis, like, unlike, gracilis, humilis, slender, low: facilis, facilior, facillimus, Imbēcillis has imbēcillimus.

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

exterus,	exterior,	extrēmus	and extimus,	outward.
Inferus,	inferior,	infimus	and Imus,	lower,
superus,	superior,	suprēmus	and summus,	upper,
posterus,	posterior,	postrēmus	and postumus,	next.

¹ The superlative ending is-simus is probably compounded of is, from ios, the original comparative ending (154, foot-note 4), and simus for timus; ios-timus = ios-simus = to-simus. After l and r, the first element is omitted, and s assimilated: facilis, facilismus, facil-timus; ācer, ācer-simus, ācer-rimus; but those in ilis drop the final wowl of the stem. See Bodo. § 291-807; Schleicher, pp. 485-494; Roby, D. ixvi

164. Egēnus, prōvidus, and compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus, are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in ēns:

egēnus,	egentior,	egentissimus,	needy,
providus,	providentior,	providentissimus,	prudent,
maledicus,	maledicentior,	maledicentissimus,	slanderous,
mūnificus,	munificentior,	munificentissimus,	liberal,
benevolus,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus,	benevolent.

Note. - Mirificissimus occurs as the superlative of mirificus, wonderful.

165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good,
malus,	pejor,	pessimus,	bad,
māgnus,	mājor,	māximus,	great,
parvus,	minor,	minimus,	small,
multus,	plūs,	plūrimus,	much.

Nors 1.— $Pl\bar{u}s$ is neuter, and has in the singular only Nom. and Acc. $pl\bar{u}s$, and Geppläris. In the plural it has Nom, and Acc. $pl\bar{u}r\bar{e}s$ (m. and f.), $pl\bar{u}ra$ (n.), Gen. $pl\bar{u}rs$ um, Dat and Abl. $pl\bar{u}ribus$.

Note 2.—Dives, friigi, and nequam are thus compared:

dives,	divitior,	dīvitissimus,) dītissimus,	rich,
frügī,	frūgālior,	frūgālissimus,	frugal,
nëquam,	nēquior,	nēquissimus,	worthless.

166. Positive Wanting.

citerior,	citimus, Jēterrimus,	nearer,	prior, propior,	prīmus, prēximus,	former,
interior,	intimus,	inner,	ūlterior,	ūltimus,	tarther.
ōcior.	ōcissimus.	swifter.			

167. Comparative wanting.

1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.

2. In these adjectives:

dīversus, falsus,	dīversissimus, falsissimus,	different, false,	novus, sacer,	novissimus, sacerrimus,	new,
inclutus,	inclutissimus, invitissimus,	renowned, unwilling.	vetus,	veterrimus,	old.

Note.—Many participles used adjectively are compared in fuil: amāns, amantion amantissimus, loving; doctus, doctior, doctissimus, instructed, learned.

168. SUPERLATIVE WANTING.

- 1. In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile.
- 2. In many adjectives in alis and tlis: capitalis, capitalior, capital.
- In alacer, alacrior, active; caecus, blind; diūturnus, lasting; longīnquus, distant; opīmus, rich; prōclīvis, steep; propīnquus, near; salūtāris, salutary, and a few others.
 - 4. Three adjectives supply the superlative thur.

adolėscėns,	adolescentior,	minimus nātū,1	young,
juvenis,	jūnior,	minimus nātū,	young,
senex,	senior,	māximus nātū,	old.

169. WITHOUT TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

- 1. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: aureus, golden; paternus, paternal; Rōmānus, Roman; aestīvus, of summer.
 - 2. Most adjectives in us preceded by a rowel: idoneus, suitable.
- 3. Many derivatives in ālis, āris, īlis, ulus, icus, īnus, ōrus: mortālis (mors), mortal.
- 4. Albus, white; claudus, lame; fērus, wild; lassus, weary; mīrus, wonderful, and a few others.

II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON.

- 170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most, to the positive: arduus, magis arduus, maxime arduus, arduous.
- 1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valdē, oppidē, very; imprīmēs, apprīmē, in the highest degree. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very: perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclārus, very illustrious.
- 2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used—(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multō, longē, much, far: etiam dīligentior, even more diligent; multō dīligentior, much more diligent—(2) With the superlative: multō, longē, much, by far; quam, as possible: multō or longē dīligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam dīligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

NUMERALS.

- 171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.²
 - 172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:
 - 1. CARDINAL NUMBERS: ūnus, one; duo, two.
 - 2. Ordinal Numbers: prīmus, first; secundus, second.
- 3. DISTRIBUTIVES: singulī, one by one; bīnī, two by two, two each, two apiece.

173. To these may be added-

¹ Smallest or youngest in age. Natā is sometimes omitted.

² The first ten cardinal numbers, mille, primus, secundus, and semel (once), four-teen words in all, furnish the basis of the Latin numeral system. All other numerals are formed from these either by derivation or by composition.

- 1. MULTIPLICATIVES, adjectives in plex, Gen. plicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, threefold.
- 2. Proportionals, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

174. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES:

174. TABLE OF IN	UMERAL ADJECTIVES	•
CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singuli, one by one
2. duo, duae, duo	secundus, * second	bīnī, two by zuo
3. trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)
4. quattuor	quartus, fourth	quaternī
5. quinque	quintus, fifth	quini
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septēnī
8. octo	octāvus	octōnī
9. novem	nōnus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	dēnī
11. undecim	ŭndecimus	ündēnī
12. duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13. tredecim 1	tertius decimus s	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quindecim	quīntus decimus	quînî dênî
16. sēdecim or sexdecim 1	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim '	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
18. duoděviginti 2	duodēvīcēsimus ⁶	duodēvīcēnī
19. ündēvīgintī 2	ūndēvīcēsimus 6	ündēvīcēnī
20. vīgintī	vīcēsimus ⁷	vicēni
21. viginti unus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēni singulī
unus et viginti s	ūnus et vīcēsimus 3	singulī et vīcēnī
22. [viginti duo	vīcēsimus secundus	vīcēnī bīnī
duo et viginti	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vicēnī
80. trīgintā	trīcēsimus ⁷	triceni
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50. quinquăgintă	quīnquāgēsimus	quinquägēni
60. sexāgintā	se x āgēsimus	sexāgēnī
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80. octogintā	octogēsimus	octōgēnī

¹ Sometimes with the parts separated : decem et tres; decem et sex, etc.

Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers any be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem or decem novem; su 22, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from trigintā, etc., or by addition to vigintā.

[•] If the tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

⁴ Alter is often used for secundus.

Decimus, with or without et, may precede: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius

[•] Sometimes expressed by addition: octavus decimus and nonus decimus.

¹ Sometimes written with q: vigesimus; trigesimus.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
90.	nonaginta	nonāgēsimus	nônāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsimus	centeni
101	centum ūnus	centēsimus prīmus	centēnī singulī
101.	centum et ūnus 1	centēsimus et prīmus	centeni et singuli
200.	ducentī, ae, a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī
300.	trecenti	trecentēsimus	trecēnī
400.	quadringenti	quadringentēsimus	quadringenī
500.	quingenti	quingentēsimus	quingeni
600.	sēscentī 2	sēscentēsimus 2	sēscēnī 2
700.	septingentI	septingentēsimus	septingēnī
800.	octingenti	octingentēsimus	octingenī
900.	nongenti	nōngentēsimus	nöngēnī
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīlia 3
2,000.	duo mīlia 3	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīlia
100,000.	centum milia	centies millesimus	centēna mīlia
1,000,000.	deciēs centēna	decies centies millesi-	decies centena mi-
•	mīlia 4	mus	lia

1. Ordinals with pars, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: tertia pars, a third part, a third; quarta pars, a fourth; duae tertiae, two thirds.

Note.—Cardinal numbers with partés are used in fractions when the denominator larger than the numerator by one: duae partés, two thirds, três partés, three fourths, etc.

- 2. DISTRIBUTIVES are used-
- 1) To show the *number* of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece: ternos denārios accepērunt*, they received *each* three denarii, or three apiece. Hence—
- 2) To express Multiplication: decies centena milia, ten times a hundred thousand, a million.
- 3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bina castra, two camps. Here for singuli and terni, ūni and trini are used ūnae litterae, one letter; trīnae litterae, three letters.
- 4) Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: bini scyphi, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bina hastilia, two spears.
- 3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers bis sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuordecim.
- 4. Sescenti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as one thousand is used in English.
- ¹ In compounding numbers above 1(0), units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the 'wo highest denominations: mīlle centum vīgintī or mīlle et centum vīgintī, 1120.
 - 2 Often incorrectly written sexcenti, sexcentêsimus, and sexcêni.
 - 3 Often written mīllia. For duo mīlia, bīna mīlia or bis mīlle is sometimes used.
- Literally "ten times a hundred thousand"; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with centina milia: centins centina milia; 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations centina milia is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes centum milia is used.

DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. Unus, Duo, and Tres are declined as follows:

	SIN	GULAR.	Unus, one.	PI	URAL.	
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	ūnī	ūnae	ūna
Gen.	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus	ünörum	ünārum	ünörun
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	ūnīs	ūnīs	· ūnīs
Acc.	ũnum	ūnam	ūn um	ūnōs	ũnās	ūna
Voc.	ūne	ūna	ūnum	ü nī	ūnae	ūna
Abl.	ũnō	ūnā .	ūnδ	ünīs	ūnīs	ūnīs
		Duo, two.		7	Γrēs, <i>three</i>	
Nom.	duo	duae	duo 1	trēs, m. a	nd f.	tria, n.
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum ³	trium	•	trium
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribus

Note 1.—The plural of $\bar{u}nus$ in the sense of *alone* may be used with any noun: $\bar{u}ni$ Ubii, the Ubii alone; but in the sense of *one*, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: $\bar{u}na$ castra, one camp; $\bar{u}nae$ litterae, one letter.

trēs, trīs

trēs

tribus

tria

tria

tribus

duo

duo

duōbus

NOTE 2. - Like duo is declined ambo, both.

duās

duae

duābus

Acc. duōs, duo

duōbus

Voc. duo

Abl.

NOTE 3.—Multi, many, and plurimi, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of many a: multa hostia, many a victim.

- 176. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable.
- 177. Hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducents, ac, a.
- 178. Mille as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of mare (63): mīlia, mīlium, mīlibus.

NOTE.—With the substantive mille, milia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: tria milia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like bonus, and distributives like the plural of bonus, but the latter often have \$\bar{u}m\$ instead of \$\bar{v}rum\$ in the Genitive: \$\bar{v}\bar{u}\bar{v}m for \$b\bar{v}\bar{v}rum\$.

¹ In the ending o in duo and ambo (175, note 2), we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from the Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit dva, the Greek δvo , the Latin duo, and the English tvo.

² Instead of duarum and duarum, duam is sometimes used.

^{*} Rarely in other cases in connection with milium or milibus.

⁴ Generally written with one 1: milia, but sometimes with two: milia.

180. NUMERAL SYMBOLS:

ABABIO.	ROMAN.	ARABIO.	ROMAN.	ARABIO.	ROMAN.
1.	I.	12.	XII.	50.	L.
2.	II.	13.	XIII.	60.	LX.
3.	III.	14.	XIV.	70.	LXX.
4.	IV.	15.	XV.	80.	LXXX.
5.	v.	16.	XVI.	90.	XC.
6.	VI.	17.	XVII.	100.	C.
7.	VII.	18.	XVIII.	200.	CC.
8.	VIII.	19.	XIX.	500.	IO, or D.
9.	IX.	20.	XX.	600.	DC.
10.	X.	30.	XXX.	1,000.	CIO, or M.1
11.	XI.	40.	XL.	10,000.	CCIOO.

- 1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I=1; V=5; X=10; L=50; C=100; IO or D=500; CIO or M=1,000.2
 - 2. In the Combination of these symbols, except IO, observe-
 - 1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: II = 2; XX = 20.
- 2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; 1V = 5 1 = 4; VI = 5 + 1 = 6.
 - 3. In the Combination of IO observe-
- 1) That each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500 imes 10O = 500 imes 10 = 5,000; IOOO = 5,000 imes 10 = 50,000.
- 2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as Ω stands after it: IO = 500; ClO = 500 × 2 = 1,000; IOO = 5,000; CCIO = 5,000 × 2 = 10,000.
- 3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: IO = 500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs:

1. semel, once		5.	quInquiës ³	9.	noviës
2. bis, twice	1	6.	sexičs	10.	deciēs
3. ter, three times		7.	septies	11.	ũnde ci ēs
4. quater	1	8.	octiës	12.	duodecies

¹ Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol: $\overline{II} = 2,000$; $\overline{V} = 5,000$

- ² The origin of these symbols is uncertain. According to Mommsen, I is the outstretched finger; V, the open hand; X, the two hands crossed; L, the open hand like V, but in a different position; CIO is supposed to be a modification of the Greek Φ , not otherwise used by the Romans, afterward changed to M; IO, afterward changed to D, is a part of CIO; C is also supposed to be a modification of the Greek Θ , but it may be the initial letter of centum, as M may be that of mille.
- ³ In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, ies is the approved ending, though iens often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives iens is the approved ending totiens (from tot), so often: quotiens (from quot), how often. See Brambach, p. 14.

18. Seriemes	90. vicies	200. ducentiës
tredeciës	21. semel et viciës	800. trecenties
. (quaterdeciès	22. bis et vīciēs	400. quadringentié
14. quaterdecies quattuordecies	80. trīciēs	500. quingenties
(quinquiesdecies	40. quadrāgies	600. sēscentiēs
15. quinquiesdecies quindecies	50. quinquagies	700. septingenties
, (sexičadeciës	60. sexāgiēs	800. octingenties
16. sexičadeciës	70. septuāgiēs	900. noningenties
17. septiesdecies	80. octogies	nongenties
, (duodēvīciēs	90. nonagies	1,000. milliës 1
18. duodēvīciēs octiesdeciēs	100. centies	2,000. bis millies
19. undēvīciēs noviēsdeciēs	101. centies semel	100,000. centies millies
i noviēsdeciēs	102. centies bis	1,000,000. mīlliēs mīlliēs

Note 1.—In compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table: $bis\ et\ v\bar{v}ci\bar{c}i\bar{c}s$; the tens, however, with or without et, may precede.

Note 2.—Another class of numeral adverbs in um or \tilde{o} is formed from the ordinals: primum, primo, for the first time in the first place; tertium, tertio, for the third time

CHAPTER III

PRONOUNS.

182. In construction, Pronouns' are used either as Substantives: ego, I, $t\bar{u}$, thou; or as Adjectives: meus, my, tuus, your.

183. Pronouns are divided into six classes.

- 1. Personal Pronouns: tū, thou.
- 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
- 3. Demonstrative Pronouns: hīc, this.
- 4. Relative Pronouns: qui, who.
- 5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
- 6. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

184. Personal Pronouns, so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are:

¹ Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

² But in their signification and use, Pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out its relation to the speaker, or to some other person or thing; see 314, II., with foot-note

Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

Ego, I.	Tū, thou.	Sul, of himself, etc.1
81	NGULAR.	
Nom. ego 9	tū	
Gen. meī	tuī	suf 1
Dat. mihi or mi	t ib ĭ	sibĭ
Aα, mē	tē	86
Voc.	tā	
Abl. mē	tē	86
1	PLURAL.	
Nom. nōs	vōs	
Gen. {nostrum nostri	vestrum 3	sui
nostri	vestri) sur
Dat. nobis	võbīs	aib i
Acc. nos	võ s	8 ë
Voc.	võs	
Abl. nobis	võbis	88

- 1. The Case-Endings of Pronouns differ considerably from those of Nouns.
- 2. Sui, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
- 3. EMPHATIO FORMS in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egomet, I myself; temet, etc. But the Nom. tū has tūte and tūtemet, not tūmet.
 - 4. REDUPLICATED FORMS.—Sese, tête, meme, for se, te, me.
- 5. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Mis for mei; tis for tui; med and mepts for me; ted for te; sed, sepse, for se.
- 6. Cum, when used with the ablative of a Personal Pronoun, is appended to it: mēcum, tēcum.

II. Possessive Pronouns.

185. From Personal pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus,	a,	um,	my;		noster,	tra,	trum,	our;
tuus,	a,	um,	thy, your	;	vester,	tra,	trum,	your;
suus,	a,	um,	his, hers,	its;	suus,	a,	um,	their.

¹ Of himself, herself, itself. The Nominative is not used.

² Ego has no connection in form with $me\bar{\imath}$, $mih\bar{\imath}$, etc., but it corresponds to the Greek $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}\nu$, $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$. The oblique cases of ego and $t\bar{\imath}$ in the singular are derived from the Indo-European roots ma and tva. Compare the Accusative Singular of each in—

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH
mã-m <i>or</i> mã,	μé,	mē,	me.
två-m or två,	τέ or σέ,	tō,	thee.

 $Su\bar{i}$, $eib\bar{i}$, $e\bar{e}$, in both numbers are formed from the root sca. The origin of the plural forms of ego and $t\bar{u}$ is obscure. See Papillon, pp. 142-149; Kühner, I., pp. 378-382.

* Pestrum and restri are also written rostrum and vostri, though less correctly.

Met. tui, sul, nostri, and vestri, are in form strictly Possessives in the Gen. Sing., but by
use they have become Personal. Nostri and vestri have also become Plural. Thus, memor
vestri, 'mindful of you,' means literally mindful of yours. I. e., of your welfare, interest
Vostrum and vestrum, for nostrirum and vestrirum, are also Possessives: see 182.

Note 1.- Possessiv-s are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions but meus has in the Vocative Singular Maschine generally mī, sometimes meus, and in the Genltive Phral sometimes meum instead of meōrum.

Note 2.- Emphatic forms in pte and met occur: suapte, suamet.

Note 8.—Other possessives are: (1) cũ jus, a, um,² 'whose,' and cũ jus, a, um,² 'whose?' declined like bonus, and (2) the Patrisls, nostrās, Genitive ātis, 'of our country,' nestrās, Genitive ātis, 'of your country,' and cũ jās, Genitive ātis, 'of whose country,' declined as adjectives of Declension III.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are declined as follows:

L. Hic, this,4

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
MASO.	FRM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom, hic	haec	hỗc	hī	hae 7	haec
Gen. hūjus	h ūj us	hūjus 5	hōr um	hārum	hōrum
Dat. huic	huic	huic	his	hīs	hīs
Aoz. hunc	hane	hốc ⁶	hõs	hās	haec
Abl. hōe	hāc	hõc	hīs	hīs	h ī s

II. Iste, that, that of yours; see 450.

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL,	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FRM.	NEUT.
Nom.	iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	istĭus	istĭus	istĭus ⁵	istörum	istārum	istōrum
Dat.	istI	istī	istI	istīs	istīs	istIs
Acc.	istum	istam	istud 6	istōs	istās	ista
461	istõ	istā	istő	istīs	istīs	istīs

- 1 In early Latin tuus is sometimes written tovos, and suus, sovos.
- From the relative qui, cujus (187), also written quivius.
- From the interrogative quis, cūjus (188), also written quoius.
- The stem of hie is ho, ha, which by the addition of i, another pronominal stem ween in t-s, 'he,' becomes in certain cases hi (for ho-i), hae (for ha-i), as in hi-c, hae-c. The forms ho, ha, sppear in hō-c, ha-nc. Ancient and rare forms of this pronoun are heo (for hic), holus (for hijus), hole, holes (for huic), hone (for hunc), heis, heisee, his, hilvs (for hie, hi), hibus (for his).
- In Genitive suffix is us, appended to the stem after the addition of i (foot-note 4): ho-i-us, hūjus (i changed to j between two vowels, 28), islo-i-us, islius (i retained after a consonant). The suffix us, originally us, is in origin the same as the suffix is in the third declension. In one the original vowel a is weakened to u, and in the other to i see Wordsworth, p. 95; Corssen, I., p. 307.

In prose i in the ending tus is generally long.

- Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns want the Vocative
- Here the form with c, haec, is sometimes used.
- The stem of iste (for istus) is isto in the Masc. and Neut., and ista in the Fem. 6 weakened to e in iste (24, 1, note) and to u in istu-d. Ancient and rare forms of interest.

III. Ille, that, that one, he, is declined like iste; see II. on the preceding page.

IV. Is, he, this, that.2

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī	eae	ea
Gen.	ējus	ējus	- ējus	eõrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	ěī	ěī	ěī ²	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id4	eõs	eās	ea
Abl.	еō	eā	е ō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

V. Ipse, self, he.

	8	INGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUZ.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsĭus	ipsīus	ipsĭus	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī "	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	i ps ō s	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsõ	ipsā	ips ō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. Idem, the same.

are istus (for iste), forms in 1, ae, 1 (for tus) in the Genitive, and in 0, ae, 0 (for t) in the Dat.: isti (for istius), isto (for isti), istus (for istius or isti).

¹ The stem of ille (for illus) is illo, illa. Ancient and rare forms are (1) illus (for ille), forms in i, ae, i (for ilus) in the Genitive Singular, and in δ, ae, c (for i) in the Dative Singular: illi (for illius), etc.; (2) forms from ollus or olle (for those from ille): ollus, olle, olla, etc.

² The stem of is is i, strengthened in most of its case-forms to eo, ea. Ancient or rare forms of is are, eis (for is): ê-i-ei, ei-ei, i-ei, eae (for Dative Singular ēt); im, em (for eum); e-eis, i-eis, eis (for Nominative Plural ei); ê-i-eis, ei-eis, e-eis, ibus, eābus (for eix). To these may be added a few rare forms from a root of kindred meaning, *o, sa: sum, sam=eum, eam; sês, sās=eōs, eās. This root appears in ip-sus, ip-sa, ip-sum Sī, if, and eī-c, thus, are probably Locatives from this root or from sva, the root of mī (184).

3 Sometimes a diphthong in poetry. In the same way the plural forms el, il, els, ils, are sometimes monosyllables. Instead of il and ils, i and ils are sometimes written.

4 See page 72, foot-note 6.

b Ipse (for ipsus = i-pe-sus) is compounded of is or its stem i, the intensive particle pe, 'even,' 'indeed,' and the pronominal root so, sa, mentioned in foot-note 2 above. The stem is ipso, ipsu, but forms occur with the first part declined and pse unchanged: eum-pse, eam-pse, etc.; sometimes combined with rê: reapse = rê-eapse = rê ipsa, 'in reality.' Ipsus (for ipse) is not uncommon.

b In idem, compounded of is and dem, only the first part is declined. Isdem is shortened to idem, iddem to idem, and m is changed to n before dem (33, 4). In early Latin elsdem and isdem occur for idem; eidem and idem for idem; eisdem and idem for idem; eidem.

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASO	FRM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	Idem	eadem	idem	∫ eīdem ^g (iīdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen.	ējusdem	ējusdem	ējusdem	eõrundem	eārundem	ебrundещ
Dat.	ĕīdem	ĕīdem	ĕīdem ²	{ eīsdem } iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ⁹ iīsdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eösdem	eāsdem	eadem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eödem	∫ eīsdem } iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem [‡] iīsdem

- 1. Hie (for hi-ce) is compounded with the demonstrative particle ce, meaning here. The forms in c have dropped e, while the other forms have dropped the particle entirely. But ce is often retained for emphasis; hice, hūjusce, hōsce, hōrunce (m changed to n), hōrunc (e dropped). Ce, changed to ci, is generally retained before the interrogative ne: hīcine, hōscine.
- 2. ILLTC AND ISTTC,3 also compounded with the particle co, are declined alike, as follows:

		SINGULAI	₹.	1	PLURAL.	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	illĭc	Illaec	illūc (illōe)	illie	illacc	illacc
Gen.	illĭusce	illiusce	illiusce 4			
Dat.	illīc	illīc	illie	illīsce	illisce	illisce
Acc.	illune	illane	illūe (illōc)	illősce	illäsce	illaec
Abl.	illōc	illāe	illōe	illisce	illīsce	illisce
Abl.	illōc	illāe	illōe	illisce	illīsce	illisce

- 3. Syncopated Forms, compounded of ecce or èn, 'lo,' 'see,' and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, occur: eccum for ecce eum; eccos for ecce eos; ellum for èn illum; ellam for èn illam.
- 4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tālis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

Note.—For talls, the Genitive of a demonstrative with modī (Genitive of modus, measure, kind) is often used: hijusmodī, ējusmodī, of this kind, such.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'who,' so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

¹ Sometimes a dissyliable.

² Eidem and eisdem are the approved forms. Instead of iidem and iisdem, dissyllables in poetry, idem and isdem are often written.

² Illie and istic are formed from the stems of ille and iste in the same manner as hic is formed from its stem; see page 72, foot-note 4.

Observe that ce is retained in full after s, but shortened to c in all other situations.

The stem of qui is quo, qua, which becomes co, cu in cujus and cui. Qui and

- 1. $Qu\bar{\imath}^2 = qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'with which,' 'wherewith,' is a Locative or Ablative of the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$.
- 2. Cum, when used with the Ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuscum.
- 3. Quicumque and Quisquis, 'whoever,' are called from their signification general relatives.' Quicumque (quicunque) is declined like qui. Quisquis is rare except in the forms, quisquis, quidquid (quicquid), quoquo.

Note.—The parts of Quicumque are sometimes separated by one or more words: qui rê cumque.

4. RELATIVE ADJECTIVES: quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms: quālisquālis, quāliscumque, etc.

Note.—For Qualis the Genitive of the relative with modi is often used: cajusmodi, of what kind, such as; cajuscumquemodi, cuicuimodi (for cajuscajusmodi), of whatever kind.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

188. The Interrogative Pronouns quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$, with their compounds, are used in asking questions. They are declined as follows:

quae are formed from quo and qua like $h\bar{t}$ and hae in $h\bar{t}$ -c and hae-c from ho and ha; see 186, 1., foot-note 4. Ancient or rare forms are quei, quis (for qui), Nom. Sing.; quoi ii. = j); quot, cui (for cui)us, as in cuimod $\bar{t} = c\bar{u}jusmod\bar{t}$), quoi ei, quoi (for cui); ques (for qui). Nom. Piur.; quai (for quae), Fem. and Neut. Piur.; queis, quis (for quibus).

- ¹ An Accusative quom, also written quum and cum, formed directly from the stern quo, became the conjunction quom, quum, cum, 'when,' lit. during which, i.e., during which time. Indeed, several conjunctions are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns quam, 'in what way,' 'how,' is the Accusative of qui; quamquam, 'however much,' the Accusative of quis-quis (187, 8); tum, 'then,' and tam, 'so,' Accusatives of the pronominal stem to, ta, seen in is-tus, is-te, is-ta (186, II., foot-note 8).
- ² This is an element in quin = qui-ne, by which not, that not, and in quippe = qui-pe, indeed.
- ³ Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking cumque, like qui-cumque, or by being doubled like quis-quis: quilis-cumque, quilis-quilis, of whatever kind; ubi-cumque, ubi-ubi, wheresoever.
- 4 The relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, the interrogatives $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, and the indefinites $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, are all formed from the stein quo, qua. The ancient and rare forms are nearly the same in all; see page 74, foot note 5

I. Quis, who, which, what?

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Masc. Nom. quis Gen. cūjus Dat. cui Acc. quem Abl. quō	FEM. quae cūjus cui quam quā	Neuz. quid cūjus cui quid quo	MASC. quī quōrum quibus quōs quibus	FEM. quae quārum quibus quās quibus	Neut. quae quōrum quibus quae quibus

- II. Quī, which, what? is declined like the relative quī.
- 1. Quis is generally used substantively, and Qui, adjectively. The forms quis and quem are sometimes feminine.
- 2. $Qu\bar{i}$, how? in what way? is a Locative or Ablative of the interrogative $qu\bar{i}s$; see 187, 1.
- 3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But ecquis has sometimes ecqua for ecquae.
- 4. Interrogative Adjectives: qualis, e, what? quantus, a, um, how great? quot, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two)? see 151.

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

- 189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$, with their compounds.
- 190. Quis, 'any one,' and $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'any one,' 'any,' are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$. But—
- 1. After $s\bar{s}$, $nis\bar{s}i$, $n\bar{e}$, and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quas or quas: $s\bar{s}i$ quae, $s\bar{s}i$ qua.
 - 2. From quis and qui are formed-
 - 1) The Indefinites:

aliquis,	aliqua,	aliquid or aliquod,1	some, some one.
quispiam, quidam,	quaepiam, quaedam,	quidpiam or quodpiam,2 quiddam or quoddam,3	some, some one. certain, certain one.
quisquam,	quaequam,	quicquam or quidquam,4	any one.

¹ Aliquis is compounded of ali, seen in ali-us; quisquam, of quis and quam; quisque, of quis and que (from qui); quivis, of qui and the verb vis (293), 'you wish'-hence qui-vis, 'any you wish'; quilibet, of qui and the impersonal libst, 'it pleases.'

² Also written quippiam, quoppiam.

³ Quidam changes m to n before d: quendam for quemdam,

⁴ Quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.

2) The General Indefinites:

quisque,	quaeque,	quidque	or quodque,1	every, every one.
quīvis,	quaevīs,	quidvīs	or quodvīs,	any one you please.
quilibet,	quaelibet,	quidlibet	or quodlibet,	any one you please.

Note 1.—These compounds are generally declined like quis and qui, but they have in the Neut. Sing, quod used adjectively, and quid substantively.

Note 2.—Aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. Aliqui for aliquis occurs.

191. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites, is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

Interbogative.	INDEFINITE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
quis, qui, who? what??	quis, quī, s any one, any; aliquis, s some one, some; quīdam, certain one, certain;	hic, this one, this; ite, that one, that; ille, that one, that; is, he, that;	qui,3 who.
uter, which of two?	uter or alteruter, ei- ther of two;	uterque, each, both;	qui, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet,3 of any kind;	<i>tālis</i> , such ;	quālis,³ as.
quantus, how great?	aliquantus, some- what great; quan- tusvis, as great as you please;	tantus, so great;	quantus,3 as, as great.
quot, how many?	aliquot, some;	tot, so many;	quot, as, as many.

Note.—Nesciŏ quis, 'I know not who,' has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = $qu\bar{u}dam$, 'some one.' So also nesciŏ $qu\bar{v}$, 'I know not which' or 'what' = 'some'; $nesci\~o$ quot = aliquot, 'some,' 'a certain number.'

¹ In *ūnus-quisque* both parts are regularly declined.

² Observe that the question quis or qui, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, qui, aliquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hic, this one, or hic qui, this one who; is, he, or is qui, he who, etc.

³ In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, qli-quis, quī, quī-dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

⁴ On hic, iste, ille, and is, see 450; 451, 1.

b Or one of the demonstratives, hic, iste, etc.

CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.

- 192. VERBS in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.
 - 193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:
- I. TRANSITIVE VERBS admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat, he beats the slave.
- II. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.¹
 - 194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES.

195. There are two voices:

- I. The Active Voice² represents the subject as acting or existing: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.
- II. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: $f\bar{\imath}lius\ \bar{a}\ patre\ am\bar{a}tur$, the son is loved by his father.
- 1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 301, 1.
- 2. DEPONENT VERES 3 are Passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, to speak. But see 231.

II. Moods.

196. There are three moods:

Here servum, 'the slave,' is the object of the action: beats (what?) the slave. The object thus completes the meaning of the verb. He beats is incomplete in sense, but the boy runs is complete, and accordingly does not admit an object.

² Voice shows whether the subject acts (Active Voice), or is acted upon (Passive Voice). Thus, with the Active Voice, 'the father loves his son,' the subject, father, is the one who performs the action, loves, while with the Passive Voice, 'the son is loved by the father,' the subject, son, merely receives the action, is acted upon, is loved.

3 So called from depond, to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning. For deponent verbs with the sense of the Greek Middle, see 465.

4 Mood, or Mode, means manner, and relates to the manner in which the meaning of the verb is expressed, as will be seen by observing the force of the several Moods.

I. The Indicative Mood either asserts something as a fact or inquires after the fact:

Legit, HE IS READING. Legitne, IS HE READING? Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Quis ego sum, who am I?

II. The Subjunctive Mood expresses not an actual fact, but a possibility or conception. It is best translated '—

1. Sometimes by the English auxiliaries, 2 let, may, might, should, would:

Amèmus patriam, let us love our country. Sint beātī, may they be happy. Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Hốc nêmo dùxerit, no one would say this. Ego censeam, I should think, of I am inclined to think. Enluitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Domum ubǐ habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell.

2. Sometimes by the English *Indicative*, especially by the Future forms with *shall* and *will*:

Huic cèdāmus, shall we yield to this one? Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Dubito num débeam, I doubt whether I ought. Quaesivit si licèret, he inquired whether it was lawful.

3. Sometimes by the *Imperative*, especially in prohibitions:

Scribere në pigrère, do not negleot to write. Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro.

4. Sometimes by the English Infinitive: 4

Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Missi sunt qui consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

III. The Imperative Mood expresses a command or an entreaty:

Jūstitiam cole, practise justice. Tū nō cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes.

¹ The use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax. A few illustrations are here given to ald the learner in understanding the Paradigms of the Verbs; see 477-530.

² This is generally the proper translation in simple sentences and in principal clauses (483), and sometimes even in subordinate clauses (490).

³ Or, he strives to conquer; see 4 below, with foot-note 4.

⁴ The English has a few remnants of the Subjunctive Mood, which may also be used in translating the Latin Subjunctive: Utinam possem, resuld that I WERE ABLE.

Observe, however, that the Infinitive here is not the translation of the Subjunctive alone, but of the Subjunctive with its subject and connective: ut vincat, to conquer (lit., that he may conquer); qui consultent, to consult (lit., who should or would consult).

VERBS. III. TENSES.

197. There are six tenses:

- I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
- 1. Present: amő, I love, I am loving.1
- 2. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving, I loved.
- 3. Future: amābŏ, I shall love, I will love.
- II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION.
- 1. Perfect: amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
- 2. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.
- 3. Future Perfect: amāverō, I shall have loved.

NOTE 1.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.

Note 2.—The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.⁴

198. Principal and Historical.—Tenses are also distinguished as—

- I. PRINCIPAL OF PRIMARY TENSES:
- 1. Present: amő, I love.
- 2. Present Perfect: amāvī, I have loved.8
- 3. Future: amābŏ, I shall love.

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- 4. Future Perfect: amāverŏ, I shall have loved.
- II. HISTORICAL OF SECONDARY TENSES:
- 1. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
- Historical Perfect: amāvī, I loved.³
- 3. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.

¹ Or, I do love. The English did may also be used in translating the Imperfect and Perfect: I did love.

² Or, I will have loved.

² Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses—the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen in the Greek Aorist: amāvī = $\pi\epsilon\phi i\lambda\eta\kappa\alpha$, I have loved; amāvī = $\epsilon\phi i\lambda\eta\kappa\alpha$, I loved. The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact—I loved; while the latter regards it as in progress—I was loving.

⁴ The nice distinctions of tense have been fully developed only in the Indicative. In the Subjunctive and Imperative, the time of the action is less prominent and is less definitely marked.

199. Numbers and Persons.—There are two numbers, Singular and Plural, and three persons, First, Second, and Third.

Note.—The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the finite verb.

- 200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:
- I. The Infinitive is a verbal noun.² It is sometimes best translated by the English *Infinitive*, sometimes by the *verbal noun in ine*, and sometimes by the *Indicative*:

Exire ex urbe volò, I wish to go out of the city. Gestió scire omnia, I long to know all things. Hace scire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Peccare licet nëmini, to sin is lawful for no one. Vincere scis, you know how to conquer, or you understand conquering. Të dicunt esse sapientem, they say that you are wise. Sentimus calère ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. See also Syntax, 532-539.

II. The GERUND gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the *genitive*, dative, decusative, and ablative singular. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in ING:

Amandī, of loving. Amandī causā, for the sake of loving. Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Cupidus tē audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Ūtilis bibendō, useful for deinking. Ad discendum propēnsus, inclined to learn, or to learning. Mēns discendō alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. See also Syntax, 541-544.

III. The SUPINE gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension. It has a form in um and a form in \bar{u} :

Amātum, to love, for loving. Amātu, to be loved, for loving, in

3 Observe that the infinitive vincere may be translated by the English infinitive, to

conquer, or by the verbal neun, conquering.

¹ As in Nouns; see 44.

² The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. See Jolly, pp. 179-200.

⁴ Observe that the infinitives esse and caliere are translated by the indicative are and is (is hot); and that the Acc. ie, the subject of esse, is translated by the Nom. you, the subject of are; and that the Acc. ignem, the subject of caliere, is translated by the Nom. fire, the subject of is.

Occasionally the Gerund, especially with a preposition, may be thus translated by the English infinitive.

LOVING. Auxilium postulātum vēnīt, he came to ask aid. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. See Syntax, 545-547.

NOTE.—The Supine in um is an Accusative in form, while the Supine in \bar{u} may be either a Dative or an Ablative; see 116.

IV. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective. It is sometimes best translated by the English *Participle* or *Infinitive*, and sometimes by a *Clause*:

Amāns, Loving. Amātūrus, about to love. Amātus, loved. Amandus, deserving to be loved. Platō scrībēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Sol oriēns diem conficit, the sun rising, or when it rises, 2 causes the day. Rediit belli cāsum tentātūrus, he returned to try (lit., about to try) the fortune of war. In amīcīs digendis, 3 in selecting friends. See Syntax, 548-550.

Note.—A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and the Future, amāns, amātūrus; and two in the Passive, the Per-

fect and the Gerundive, amatus, amandus.

CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	CHARACTERISTICS.	INFINITIVE ENDINGS.
Conj. I.	ā	ā-re
II.	ē	ē-re
III.	е	e-re
IV.	ī	ĩ-re

202. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine are called from their importance the *Principal Parts* of the verb.

2 Or by its rising.

¹ Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns.

³ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle. In agreement with a noun, it is often best translated like a gerund governing that noun; see 544.

⁴ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection, as the differences between them have been produced in the main by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of suffixes; see Comparative View of Conjugations, 213-216

NOTE 1.—In the inflection of verbs it is found convenient to recognize four stems:

- The Verb-Stem, which is the basis of the entire eonjugation. This is often called simply the Stem.
- 2) Three Special Stems, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Supine Stem.

Note 2.—The Special Stems are formed from the Verb-Stem, unless they are identical with it.1

- 203. The Entire Conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the Principal Parts by means of the proper endings.²
- 1. Sum, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset. The Principal Parts are—

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Pref. Indic. sum, I am, esse, to be, ful, I have been.

Note 1 .- Sum has no Supine.

Note 2.—Two independent stems or roots 3 are used in the conjugation of this verb, viz.: (I) es, seen in s-um (for es-um) and in es-se, and (2) fu, seen in fu- \bar{i} .

- ¹ For the treatment of Stems, see 249-256. In many verbs the stem is itself derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*. For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.
- ² In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (222, I.) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH
as-mi	ei-μί	8-um	a-m
as-i	èσ-σί	ев	ar-t
as-ti	έσ-τί	es-t	is
s-mas	έσ-μέν for έσ-μές	s-umns	ar-e
s-tha	ἐσ-τέ	es-tis	ar-e
s-anti	έ-ντί for έσ-ντί	s-nnt	ar-e

Every verbal form is thus made by appending to the stem, or root, a pronominal ending meaning I, thou, he, etc. Thus mi, seen in the English me, means I. It is retained in as-mi and $\epsilon i\text{-}\mu i$, but shortened to m in s-u-m and a-m. Ti, meaning he, is preserved in as-ti and $\epsilon\sigma\text{-}ti$, but shortened to t in es-t and lost in is. The stem also undergoes various changes: in Sanskrit it is as, sometimes shortened to s; in Greek ϵs , sometimes shortened to ϵs ; in Latin ϵs , sometimes shortened to ϵs , as in Sanskrit; in English a, ar, ar, ar

204. Sum, I am.—Stems, es, fu.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

	1 1011101	I HILLIO.	
PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.
sum,	es se ,	fu 1 ,	_

INDICATIVE MOOD. PRESENT TENSE.

	SINGULAR.	I RESENT IE	PLU	RAL.
STAIN,2	I am,		sumus,	we are,
es,	thou art,3		estis,	you are,
est,	he is ;		sunt,	they are.
		IMPERFECT	r.	
eram,	I was,		er amus ,	we were,
er as ,	thou wast,8		er ātis ,	you were,
er at ,	he was;		er ant ,	they were.
		FUTURE.		
er ŏ ,4	I shall be,	1.	erimus,	we shall be,
er is ,	thou wilt be,		eritis,	you will be,
er it ,	he will be;	1	erunt,	they will be.
		Perfect.		
fu¶,	I have been,5		fu imus ,	we have been,
fu ist I,	thou hast been,		fu istis ,	you have been
fu it ,	he has been;		fuerunt, fuere, -	they have been
		PLUPERFE	et.	
fueram	, I had been,		fu erāmus	, we had been,
fueras,	thou hadst been,		fu erātis ,	you had been,
fuerat,	he had been ;	,	fuerant,	they had been.
		FUTURE PERI	ECT.	

FUTURE I ERFECT.						
fu erŏ ,	I shall have been,	fuerimus, we shall have been,				
fuer is ,	thou wilt have been,	fueritis, you will have been,				
fu erit ,	he will have been;	fuerint, they will have been.				

¹ The Supine is wanting.

² Sum is for esum, eram for esam. Whenever s of the stem es comes between two vowels, e is dropped, as in sum, sunt, or s is changed to r, as in eram, erő; see 31, 1. The pupil will observe that the endings which are added to the roots es and fu are distinguished by the type.

³ Or you are, and in the Imperfect, you were; thou is confined mostly to solemn

d In verbs, final o, marked o, is generally long.

Or, Future, I will be : Perfect, I was : see 197, note 1.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

		DODGOT	CIIVID.		
		SINGULAR. PRES	SENT. P	LURAL.	
sin	īka,	may I be,1	simus,	let us be,	
	, ,	mayst thou be,2		be ye, may you be,	
	t,		sint,		
		Імрея	FECT.		
ess	em,	I should be,1	essēmus,	we should be,	
ess		thou wouldst be,	es sētis ,	you would be.	
		he would be;	essent,		
		Peri	FECT.		
fu€	erim,	I may have been,1	fu erīmus ,	we may have been,	
fu€	erĭs,	thou mayst have been,	fu erītis ,	you may have been,	
fu€	erit,			they may have been.	
		PLUPE	RFECT.		
fuissem		I should have been,	fu issēmus ,	we should have been	
fu issēs ,		thou wouldst have been,	fu issētis ,	you would have been	
fui	isset,	he would have been;	fuissent,	they would have been	
		Imper	ATIVE.		
Prez.	es,	be thou,	es te ,	be ye.	
Fut.	es tő .	thou shalt be,3	es tōte ,	ve shall be.	
		he shall be; 3	suntō,		
	T	MINITIVE.	PAR	TICIPLE.	
Pres.	esse,				
	,	e, to have been.			

to be.

futurus esse,4 to be about Fut.

Fut. futurus.4 about to be.

- 1. In the Paradigm all the forms beginning with e or s are from the stem es; all others from the stem fu.5
- 2. RARE FORMS: -forem, fores, foret, forent, fore, for essem, esses, esset, essent, futurus esse; siem, sies, siet, sient, or fuam, fuas, fuat, fuant, for sim, sis, sit, sint.
- 1 On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II., and remember that it is often best rendered by the Indicative. Thus, sim may often be rendered I am, and fuerim, I have been.
 - 2 Or be thou, or may you be.
 - 3 The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres., or with let: be thou; let him be.
 - Futūrus is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive: futūrus, a, um esse.
- 5 Es and fu are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from mere primitive forms, they are in themseives roots.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

205. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amo, I love.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Suping. amātum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PRESENT TENSE. PLURAL.

amā, love, amānus, we love, amās, you love, amat, he loves; amant, they love.

IMPERFECT.

amāban, I was loving, amābānus, we were loving, amābātis, you were loving, amābattis, you were loving, amābant, they were loving.

FUTURE.

amābō, I shall love, 4
amābis, you will love, amābitis, you will love, amābit, he will love; amābunt, they will love.

Perfect.

amāvī, I have loved, amāvīmus, we have loved, amāvīstī, you have loved, amāvīstis, you have loved, amāvīt, he has loved; amāvērumt, ēre, they have loved

PLUPERFECT.

amäveram, I had loved, amäveras, you had loved, amäverat, he had loved; amäverant, they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāverš, I shall have loved, amāveršmus, we shall have loved, amāveršt, you will have loved, amāverštis, he will have loved; amāverštis, they will have loved.

¹ The final \(\tilde{a}\) of the stem disappears in \(am\tilde{o}\) for \(ama-\tilde{o}\), \(amen, am\tilde{e}\), \(amen, ame.\tilde{o}\), etc., for \(ama-ir\), etc.; for \(ama-ir\), etc.; for \(ama-ir\), etc.; Fig. 23: 27. Final \(o\), marked \(\tilde{o}\), is generally long.

Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love

Or thou lovest. So in the other tenses, thou wast loving, thou will love, etc.
Or I will love So in the Future Perfect, I shall have loved or I will have loved

Or I loved : see 197, note 1.

PRESENT.

SINGULAR. may I love,1 amem. may you love, amēs,

amēmus. amētis, ament,

let us love. may you love, let them love.

PLURAL.

IMPERFECT.

märem, amārēs, amäret.

amet,

I should love. you would love. he would love;

let him love :

amārēmus, we should love, amārētis, amarent,

you would love. they would love.

PERFECT.

amāverim, amāverīs. amaverit.

I may have loved,2 you may have loved, he may have loved; amaverimus, we may have loved, amāverītis. vou may have loved. amaverint, they may have loved,

PLUPERFECT.

amāvissēs, amāvisset,

amāvissem, I should have loved, | amāvissēmus, we should have loved, you would have loved, amavissetis, you would have loved, he would have loved; amavissent, they would have loved,

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ama.

love thou; Fut. amato, thou shalt love, amate,

love ye. ue shall love.

amāto. he shall love :

amātōte, amanto.

they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amare. to love.

Perf. amavisse, to have loved. Fut. amaturus esse, to be about

to love.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amans.4

Fut. amātārus,3 about to love.

GERUND.

of loving, Gen. amandī,

Dat. amando. for loving, Acc. amandum, loving,

Abl. amando. by loving.

SUPINE.

Acc. amātum. to love. to love, be loved Abl. amātā.

1 On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

Often best rendered I have loved. So in the Pluperfect, I had loved; see 196. IL

Deciine iike bonus, 148.

4 For declension, see 157.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

206. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. amātus sumi,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. I am loved.

SINGULAR.

am**or** am**āris**, *or* re am**ātur** amāmur am**āminī** am**antur**

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

amābar amābāris, or re amābātur am**ābāmur** am**ābāminī** am**ābantur**

PLURAL.

FUTURE.

I shall or will be loved

amābor amāberis, or re amābitur am**ābimur** am**ābiminī** am**ābuntur**

Perfect.

I have been loved or I was loved.

amātus sum ¹ amātus es amātus est amātī sumus amātī estis amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹ amātus er**ās** amātus erat amātī erāmu amātī erātis amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been loved.

amātus erā 1 amātus eris amātus erit amātī erimus amātī eritis amātī erunt

¹ Ful, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amatus ful for amatus sum. So fueram, fueras, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuera, etc., for era, etc.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.1

SINGULAR.

amer

amēris, or re

amētur

PLURAL.

am**ēmur**

am**ëmini** am**entur**

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.1

am**ārer**

amārēris, or re amārētur am**ārēmur** am**ārēminī**

amärentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved, or I have been loved.1

amātus sim ² amātus sīs

amātus sit

amātī sīmus amātī sītis

amāt**ī simt**

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.1

amātus essem ² amātus essēs amātus esset

amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amare, be thou loved;

Fut. amator, thou shalt be loved, amator, he shall be loved;

amamini, be ye loved.

amantor, they shall be loved.

Infinitive.

Pres. amari, to be loved.

Perf. amātus esse, to have been loved.

Fut. amātum Irī, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. amātus, having been loveu.

Ger.3 amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² Fuerim, fueria, etc., are sometimes used for aim, aia, etc.—So also fuissom, fuisson, etc., for easem, easis, etc.: rarely fuisse for ease.

³ Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, IV., note.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

207. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneo, I advise.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Pref. Ind. Supine. moneo, moneore, monui, monitum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. I advise. Plural.
moneō monēmus
monēs monētis
monet monent

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monēbāsnus monēbās monēbātis monēbat monēbant

FUTURE.

I shall or will advise.

monēbō monēbimus monēbis monēbitis monēbit monēbunt

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monul monuimus
monuisti monuistis
monuit monuērunt, or ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monueram monueramus
monueras monueratis
monuerat monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have advised.

monueră monuerimus
monueris monueritis
monuerit monuerint

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise,1

SINGULAR. moneam moneas

moneat

PLURAL. moneamus moneatis moneant

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monerem moneres moneret

monērēmus moneratis monerent

PERFECT.

I may have advised, or I have advised.1

monuerim monu**erĭs** monuerit

monuerinius monueritis monuerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised,2

monuissem monuissēs monuisset

monuissēmus monnissētis monuissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. mon &. advise thou; Fut, moneto, thou shalt advise,

monete, advise ye.

moneto, he shall advise;

monetote, ye shall advise, monento, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monere. to advise.

Perf. monuisse, to have advised.

to advise.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monens, advisina.

Fut, moniturus esse, to be about Fut, moniturus, about to advise

GERUND.

Gen. monendī, of advising, for advising, Dat. monendo,

Acc. monendum, advising,

Abl. monendo, by advising.

SUPINE.

Acc. monitum, to advise,

Abl. monit a, to advise, be advised.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² The Pluperfect, like the Perfect, is often rendered by the Indicative : I had ad rised, you had advised, etc.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

208. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monë.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. monitus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

mon**eor** mon**ēris**, or re mon**ētur** I am advised.

PLURAL. mon**ēmur** mon**ēminī** mon**entur**

IMPERFECT.

monebar

mon**ēbāris**, *or* re

mon**ēbāmur** mon**ēbāminī** mon**ēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be advised.

mon**ēbor** mon**ēberis**, or re mon**ēbitur** mon**ēbimur** mon**ēbimiuī** mon**ēbuntur**

PERFECT.

I have been cdvised, I was advised.

monitus sum ¹
monitus es
monitus est

monitI sumus monitI estis monitI sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been advised.

monitus eram ¹
monitus eras
monitus erat

monit**ī erāmus** monit**ī erātis** monit**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been advised.

monitus eriš
monitus eris
monitus erit

moniti erimus
moniti eritis
moniti erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.

PLUBAL.

monear

moneāris, or re

moneamur moneāminī

moneātur

moneantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

monerer

moneremur mon**ërëmin**i

mon**ērēris**, or re monērētur

mon**ërentur**

PERFECT.

I may have been advised, or I have been advised.

monitus sim 1

moniti simus monity sitis

monitus sts monitus sit

monity sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.

monitus essem 1 monitus esses

monitI essemus monitī essētis

monitus esset

monitI essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised; | monemini, be ye advised.

Fut, monetor, thou shalt be advised.

monetor, he shall be advised; monentor, they shall be advised. PARTICIPLE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. moneri, to be advised.

Perf. monitus esse, to have been | Perf. monitus, advised.

advised.

be advised.

Fut, monitum IrI, to be about to Ger. monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

Or I had been advised, you had been advised, etc.

SINGULAR.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS. 209. ACTIVE VOICE.—Regŏ, I rule.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. SUFINE. TEGÖ, regere, rext, rectum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. I rule.

PLURAL.

rëxerint

regð regimus regis regitis regit regunt IMPERFECT. I was ruling, or I ruled. regēbam regēbāmus regēbās regēbātis reg**ēbat** regebant FUTURE. I shall or will rule. regam regēmus regēs regetis reget regent PERFECT. I have ruled, or I ruled. rēxī rēximus rēxistī rāxistis rexit rexerunt, or ere PLUPERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

I had ruled.

rēxeram rēxerāmus rēxerās rēxerātis rēxerat rēxerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have ruled.

rēx**erō** rēx**erīmus** rēx**erīs** rēx**erītis**

The characteristic is a variable vowel—δ, u, ε, δ: regδ, regunt, regεre, regis; Curius calls it the thematic vowel; see Curtius, L, p. 199, but on δ, see also Meyer, 441.

rëx**erit**

² See 254; 30, 33, 1.

Subjunctive.

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule,1

SINGULAR. regam regas

regat

PLURAL. regamus regatis regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerem regeres regeret

regerēmus regerētis regerent

Perfect.

I may have ruled, or I have ruled.

rēxerim rēxerĭs rēxerit

réx**erimus** rēxeritis rëxerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem rēxissēs rēxisset

rēxissēmus rēxissētis rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres rege.

rule thou;

regite.

rule ye.

Fut, regito, thou shalt rule, regito, he shall rule;

| regitāte, ye shall rule, regunto, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE. Pres. regens, ruling.

Pres. regere, to rule. Perf. rexisse, to have ruled.

Fut. recturus esse, to be about Fut. recturus, about to ruie

to rule.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. regendi, of ruling, Dat. regendő, for ruling,

Acc. regendum, ruling, Abl. regendő. by ruling. Acc. rectum, to rule, Abl. recta, to rule, be ruled.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

210. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

NCIPA	

PRES. IND. regor,

PRES. INF. regI,

PERF. IND. rēctus! sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. regor

regeris, or re regitur

I am ruled.

PLURAL. regimuur regiminT reguntur

IMPERFECT. I was ruled

regebar reg**ēbāris**, or re regēbātur

regēbāmur reg**ēbāminī** regēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall or will be ruled.

regar regeris, or re regetur

reg**ēmur** regemint regentur

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum² rēctus es rēctus est

rēctī sumus rēctī estis rēctī sunt

PLUPERFECT. I had been ruled.

rēctus eram ! rēctus erās rēctus erat

rēctī erāmus rēctī erātis rēctī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been ruled.

rēctus erő t rēctus eris rectus erit

rēctī erimus rēctī eritis rēctī erunt

¹ See 209, foot-notes,

² See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

regaris, or re regatur reg**āmur** reg**āminī** reg**antur**

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

reg**erer** reg**erëris**, *or* **re** reg**erëtur** reg**erēmur** reg**erēminī** reg**erentur**

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled, or I have been ruled.

rēctus sim ' rēctus sīs rēctus sit rēctī sīmus rēctī sītis rēctī sīnt

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem ¹ rēctus essēs rēctus esset rēctī essēmus rēctī essētis rēctī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;

regiminī, be ye ruled.

Perf. rectus, ruled.

Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled, regitor, he shall be ruled;

reguntor, they shall be ruled.

Infinitive.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regI, to be ruled.

Perf. rectus esse,1 to have been ruled.

ut to be Con

Fut. rectum TrI, to be about to be ruled.

Ger. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

211. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audio, I hear.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. aud ič ,	Pres. Inf. aud ire ,	Perf. Ind. aud TvI ,	Supine, aud itum
	INDICAT	IVE MOOD	

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	I hear.	PLURAL,
audiõ		audīmuus
audīs		audītis
audit		audinnt

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam	audiēbāmus
audiēbās	audiēbātis
audi ēbat	audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall or will hear.

audiam	audiēmus
audies	audiētis
audiet	audient

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard,

audīvī	audīvimus
audīv istī	audīvistis
audīvit	audīvērunt, or ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had heard.

audīv eram	audīv erāmus
audīverās	audīv erātis
audiverat	audiv erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have heard

audīverō	audīverīmus
audīv erīs	audīverītis
audīv erit	audiverint

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.1

SINGULAR. aud**iam** audias andiat.

PLURAL. audiāmus audiātis andiamt.

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear,

audirem audīrēs audiret

audīrēmus audīrētis audirent

PERFECT.

I may have heard, or I have heard,

audiverim audiveris audīverit.

audīverīmus audīverītis audiverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audivissem audivissēs audivisset

audīv**issēmus** audīvissētis audivissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audl, hear thou;

audīte, hear ye.

Fut. audīto, thou shalt hear, audīto, he shall hear ;

audītote, ye shall hear, audiunto, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audire. to hear.

Pres. audiens, hearing.

Perf. audivisse, to have heard.

Fut. auditurus esse, to be about Fut. auditurus, about to hear.

to hear.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

PARTICIPLE.

Gen. audiendi, of hearing, Dat. audiendo.

for hearing, by hearing.

Aec. auditum, to hear,

Acc. audiendum, hearing, Abl. audiendo.

Abl. audītā, to hear, be heard

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

212. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard,

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. audītus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. audior audiris. or re

audītur

-

PLURAL. aud**īmur** aud**īminī** aud**innin**ī

IMPERFECT. I was heard.

audiēbāris, *or* re audiēbātur audiēbāmur audiēbāminī audiēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall or will be heard.

audiar audiēris, or re audiētur aud**iēmur** aud**iēminī** aud**ientur**

PERFECT.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum ¹ audītus es audītus est

audītī sumus audītī estis audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audītus eram ¹ audītus erās audītus era**t** audīt**ī erāmus** audīt**ī erātis** audīt**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been heard.

audītus erō¹ audītī erinus audītus eris audītī eritis audītus erit audītī erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR. audiāris, or re PLURAL.

audiar

and**iāmur** audiāminī

audiātur

audiantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audirer

aud**īrēmur** audīrēminī

audīrēris, or re audīrētur

audIrentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard, or I have been heard.

audītus sim ! audītus sīs anditus sit

audītī sīmus auditī sītis audītī simt

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard.

audītus essem 1 audītus essēs audītus esset

audītī essēmus auditī essētis audītī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. and Ire, be thou heard;

andIminI, be ye heard.

Fut, auditor, thou shalt be heard,

auditor, he shall be heard; audiuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE

Participle.

Pres. and IrI, to be heard.

Perf. audītus esse,1 to have been | Perf. audītus, heard. heard.

Fut. auditum IrI, to be about to Ger. audiendus, to be heard, debe heard.

serving to be heard.

102 VERBS.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

213. ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

			Prese	NT.		
٩m	-ŏ	-ās,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
mon	-eŏ,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
reg	-ŏ´	-is,	-it ;	-imus,	-itis,	-unt.
aud	-iŏ,	-īs,	-it ;	-Imus,	-ītis,	-iunt.
			IMPERE		,	
am	-ābam,	-ābās,	-ābat ;	-ābāmus,	-ābātis,	-ābant.
mon	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ebant.
	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,		-ebant.
reg aud	-iēbam,	-iēbās,	-iebat;	-iēbāmus,		-iebant
anu	-icbain,	-icuas,		•	, -lebatis,	-16 Dant.
	×	-1.	Futu			
am	-ābŏ,	-ābis,	-ābit ;	-ābimus,	-ābitis,	-ābunt.
mon	-ēbŏ,	-ēbis,	-ēbit ;	-ēbimus,	-ēbitis,	-ēbunt.
reg	-am,	-ēs,	-et ;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
aud	-iam,	-iēs,	-iet;	-iēmus,	-iētis,	-ient.
			Subjunc	TIVE.		
			Prese	NT.		
am	-em,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
mon	-eam,	-eās,	-eat;	-eāmus,	-eātis,	-eant.
reg	-am,	-as,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
aud	-iam,	-iās,	-iat ;	-iāmus,	-iātis,	-iant.
	· ·	,	IMPERF	ECT.		
anı	-ārem,	-ārēs,	-āret;	-ārēmus,	-ārētis,	-āreut.
mon	-ērem,	-ērēs,	-ēret;	-ērēmus,	-ērētis,	-ērent.
reg	-erem,	-erēs,	-eret;	-erēmus,	-erētis,	-erent.
aud	-Trem,	-īrēs,	-īret;	-īrēmus,	-īrētis,	-īrent.
auu	-11 CH1,	-1105,		,	-110113,	-II CII U.
	P	RESENT.	IMPERA'	TIVE.	FUTURE.	
SINGU	LAR.	PLURAL.	SING	ULAR.	PLU	RAL.
am	-ā,	-āte;	-ātŏ,	-ātŏ;	-ātōte,	-antŏ.
mon	-ē,	-ēte;	-ētŏ,	-ētŏ ;	-ētōte,	-entŏ.
reg	-е,	-ite;	-itŏ,	-itŏ ;	-itōte,	-untŏ.
aud	-ī, [′]	-īte;	-ītŏ́,	-ītŏ ;	-ītōte,	-iuntð
Pri	es. Infin	ITIVE.	Pre	s. Particip	PLE. (ERUND,
am		-āre;		-āns;		-andī.
mo	n	-ēre;		-ēns;		-endī.
reg		-ere;		-ēns;		-endī.
aud		-īre ;		-iēns ;		-iendī.
Not	E.—Verbs in	of Conj.	III. have certa	ain endings of C	Conj. IV.; see 2	17.

¹ For the Present System, see 222, I.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

214. PASSIVE VOICE.

reg

aud

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

			TNDE	CATIVE N	LOOD.		
				Present.			
am	-or,	-aris	or are,1	-ātur ;	-āmur,	-āminī,	-antur.
mon	-eor,	-ēris	<i>or</i> ēre,	-ētur;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.
reg	-or,	-eris	or ere,	-itur ;	-imur,	-iminī,	-untur
aud	-ior,	-īris	or īre,	-ītur ;	-īmur,	-Immi,	iuntur.
				IMPERFECT.			
am	-ābar,	-ābāris	or ābāre,	-ābātur ;	-ābāmur,	-ābāminī,	-ābantur.
mon	-ĕbar,	-ēbāris	or ēbāre,	-ēbātur ;	-ēbāmur,	-ēbāminī,	-ēbantar.
reg	-ēbar,		or ēbāre,	-ēbātur ;	-ēbāmur,	-ēbāminī,	
aud	-iēbar,	-iēbāris	or iēbāre,	-iēbātur;	-iēbāmur,	-iēbāminī,	-iēbantur
				FUTURE.			
am	-abor,	-āberis	or abere,	-ābitur;	-ābimur,	-ābiminī,	-ābuntur.
mon	-ēbor,		or ēbere,	-ēbitur ;	-ēbimur,	-ēbiminī,	-ēbuntur.
reg	-ar,	-ēris	or ēre,	-ētur ;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.
aud	-iar,	-iēris	or iēre,	-ietur ;	-iēmur,	ieminī.	-ientur.
	·		Sr	BJUNCTIV	7TC.	·	
				PRESENT.			
0.50		-ēris	Tuo		5 ma 11 m	Smint	
am	-er, -ear,	-ens -eāris	or ēre, or eāre,	-ētur; -eātur;	-ēmur, -eāmur,	-ēminī, -eāminī,	-entur. -eantur
mon	-ear,	-earis	or are.	-atur;	-amur,	-aminī,	-antur.
reg aud	-iar.	-ans	or iare.	-iatur;	-iāmur.	-aminī.	-iantur.
auu	-tai,	-14116	or laie,		•	-laillii,	·laneur,
				IMPERFECT.			
am	-ārer,	-ārēris	or ārēre,	-ārētur;	-ārēmur,	-ārēminī,	-årentur.
mon	-ērer,	-ērēris	or ërëre,	-ērētur ;	-ērēmur,	-ërëminī,	-ērentur.
reg	-erer,	-erēris	or erere,	-erētur ;	-erēmur,	-erēminī,	-erentur.
and	-īrer,	-Irēris	or īrēre,	-Irētur ;	-īrēmur,	-īrēminī,	-Irentur
			Ta	MPERATIV	r		
	PRESE	NT.	1.1	di Estall'	Fu Fu	TURE.	
BINGU		PLURAL		BINGU		PLUI	
am	-āre,	-āminī		-ātor,	-ātor ;		-antor.
mon	-ēre,	-ēminī		-ētor,	-ētor;		-entor.
reg	-ere,	-iminī;		-itor,	-itor;		untor.
aud	-īre,	-Iminī ;		-Itor,	-Itor;		-iuntor.
	Pr	RES. IN	FINITIVE.			GERUNI	OIVE.
	am		-ārī;			-andus	
	mo		-ĕrī;			-endus	•
		_	,			-0114111	

In these and the following endings re takes the place of ris: $\tilde{a}ris$ or $\tilde{a}re$, $\tilde{a}b\tilde{a}ris$ or $\tilde{s}b\tilde{a}re$. Re is formed from ris by dropping final s and then changing final i to e; see 36, 5; 24, 1, note; also 237.

-ī;

-īrī;

-endus.

-iendus.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

215. ACTIVE VOICE.

PERFECT SYSTEM.1

INDICATIVE MOOD.

		_			
amāv)		Per			
monu rēx audīv	-istī,	-i t ;	-imus,	-istis,	-ērunt, ēce
amāv)		PLUPE	ERFECT.		
monu rēx audīv					
amāv ì		FUTURE	Perfect.		
amāv monu rēx audīv	-erĭs,	-erit;	-erimus,	-erĭtis,	erint
		Subjui			
amāv)		PER	FECT.		
amāv n.onu rēx audīv	-erĭs,	-erit;	-erimus,	-er ĭ tis,	-erint.
amāv)		PLUP	RFECT.		
amāv monu rēx audīv	-issēs,	-isset;	-issēmus,	-issētis,	-issent.
	P	ERFECT]	NFINITIVE.		
amáv monu rēx audīv					
audiv j	su	PINE	SYSTEM	.1	
Fut. Infini	TIVE.	Fur. Pa	RTICIPLE,	Su	PINE.
amāt)					
amāt monit rēct -ūrus es	sse.	-ūr	us.	-un	ı, -a.

¹ For the Perfect System, see 222, II.; for the Supine System, 222, III.

rēct audīt

[·] From the comparative view presented in 213-216 it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and is the endings of the Present System. See also 201, foot-note.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

216. PASSIVE VOICE.

SUPINE SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PERFECT. PLUPERFECT. L'EUPERFECT. -us eram, -us eras, -us erat; -I eramus, I eratis, -I erant amāt audīt. Future Perfect. -us erő, -us eris, -us erit; -I erimus, -I eritis, -I erunt. amāt monit | SUBJUNCTIVE. PERFECT. amāt is sim, -us sīs, -us sit; -I simus, -T sītis, -I sint. PLUPERFECT. amāt monit -us essem, -us esses, -us esset; -ī essēmus, -ī essētis, -ī essent audīt INFINITIVE. amāt) Perfect. FUTURE. monit -us esse. -um irL audīt PERFECT PARTICIPLE. monit

rēct

^{&#}x27; In the plural, -us becomes -i: umat-i sumus, etc.

- 217. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in io, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are—
- 1. Capiổ, to take; cupiổ, to desire; faciổ, to make; fodiổ, to dig; fugió, to flee; jaciổ, to throw; pariổ, to bear; quatiổ, to shake; rapiổ, to seize; sapiổ, to be wise, with their compounds.

2. The compuneds of the obsolete verbs, lacio, to entice, and specio, to

look ; allicio, elicio, illicio, pellicio, etc.; aspicio, conspicio, etc.

3. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 231.

218. ACTIVE VOICE. — Capio, I take.

18. ACITY	5 VOICE. — C8	ipio, 1	une.	
Vı	erb Stem, cap;	PRES	ENT STEM, C	ape. 9
	PRIN	CIPAL	PARTS.	
PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.		PERF. IND.	SUPINE.
capiŏ,	capere,		cēpī,	captum.
	Indic	ATIVE	Mood.	
	Pres	SENT T	l'ense.	
	ULAR.			PLURAL.
capiŏ, capis,	capit;	i	capimus, c	apitis, capiunt.
	I	MPERF	ECT.	
capiēbam, -i	ēbās, -iēbat ;	1	capièbāmu	s, -iēbātis, iēbant.
		FUTUE	RE.	
capiam, -ies,	, -iet ;	- 1	capiēmus,	·iētis, -ient.
		PERFE	CT.	
cēpī, -istī, -i	t;	ŀ	cēpimus, -i	stis, -ērunt, or ēre.
•	Pi	LUPERI	FECT.	
cēperam, -er	ās, -erat;	i i	cēperāmus,	-erātis, -erant.
• ,	Furt	URE P	ERFECT.	
cēperð, -erfs.	, -erit ;		ceperimus,	-erītis, -erint.
•	Su	BJUNC	TIVE	
		PRESE		
annia iāa				intia lant
capiam, -iās,	•		eapiāmus,	-lattis, -lailt.
		MPERF		
caperem, -er				-eretis, -erent.
		Perfe		
cēperim, erī	is, -erit;	- 1	cēperīmus,	-erītis, -erint.
	Pr	LUPERI	FECT.	
cēpissem, -is	sēs, -isset ;	1	cēpissēmus,	-issetis, -issent.
	1.0			

¹ Specio occurs, but is exceedingly rare.

² With variable vowel - e. i., cape, capi.

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. Pres. cape; capite. Fut. capito, capitote, capito; capiunto. INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE, Pres. capere. Pres. capiens. Perf. cepisse. Fut. capturus esse. Fut. captūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. capiendl, Dat. capiendo, Acc. capiendum,

Acc. captum, Abl. capiendo. Abl. captū.

219. PASSIVE VOICE.—Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. capior,

PRES. INF. capi,

PERF. IND captus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

capior, caperis, capitur; capimur, capimini, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT.

capiebar, -iebaris, -iebatur; | capiebamur, -iebaminī, -iebantur FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur; | capiemur, -ieminī, -ientur.

PERFECT.

captus sum, es, est; captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

captus eram, eras, erat; captī erāmus, crātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus ero, eris, erit; capti erimus, eritis, erunt.

SINGULAR. PRESENT.

RESENT. PLURAL.

capiar, -iāris, -iātur; | capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur.

Imperfect.

caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur

Perfect.

captas sim, sīs, sit; | captī sīmus, sītis, sint.

PLUPERFECT.

captus essem, essēs, esset; | captī essēmus, essētis, essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. capere; capiminī.

Fut. capitor, capitor;

caperer, -erēris, -erētur;

capiuntor.

Infinitive.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capī.
Perf. captus esse.

Perf. captus esse. Fut. captum īrī.

Perf. captus.
Fut. capiendus.

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

220. The PRINCIPAL PARTS are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings, including the characteristic vowels, $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$, \mathbf{e} , $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$:

Conj. I. ŏ, āre, āvī, ātum,

amě, amāre, amāvī, amātum, to love.

Conj. II. In a few verbs: eŏ, ēre, ēvī, ētum,

děleň, dělěre, dělěví, dělětum, to destroy.

In most verbs: eŏ, ēre, uī, itum,

moneo, monere, monuī, monitum, to advise.

Conj. III. In consonant stems: ŏ, ere, sī, tum,

earp
ŏ, earpere, earps $\bar{\text{s}}$, earptum, to pluck.

In vowel stems: ŏ, ere, ī, tum, acuŏ, acuere, acuī, acūtum,

acuč, acuere, acuī, acūtum, to sharper.

Conj. IV. iŏ, ire, ivī, itum, audiŏ, audīre, audīvī, audītum, to hear.

221. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

I. When the Present of the compound has i for e of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e:1

regő, regere, rěxI, rěctum, to rule. di-rigő, dirigere, dīrexI, dīrectum, to direct.

2. But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e:1

teneč, teněre, tenuī, tentum, to hold. dě-tineč, dětiněre, dětinuī, dětentum, to detain.

- II. When the Present of the compound has i for a of the simple verb:
- 1. The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect, and the Supine takes e, sometimes a:

capič, capere, cepī, captum, to take. ac-cipič, accipere, accepī, acceptum, to accept.

2. But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e: 1

rapió, rapere, rapui, raptum, to seize. di-ripió, diripere, diripui, direptum, to tear asunder.

NOTE.—For Reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

- 222. All the forms of any regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems:
- I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises—
 - 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative—Active and Passive.
 - 2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive-Active and Passive.
 - 3. The Imperative-Active and Passive.
 - 4. The Present Infinitive-Active and Passive.
 - 5. The Present Active Participle.
 - 6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Present Stem*, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending re: amāre, present stem AMĀ; monēre, MONE; regere, REGE; audīre, AUDĪ.

- II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active Voice—
 - 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
 - 2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
 - 3. The Perfect Infinitive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Perfect Stem*, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping 1: amāvī, perfect stem amāv; monuī, monu.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises-

¹ The favorite vowel before or, or two or more consonants; see 24, 1.

Fut

- 1. The Supines in um and ū, the former of which with irī forms the Future Infinitive Passive.
- 2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amātum, supine stem AMĀT; monitum, MONIT.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION

FIRST CONJUGATION.

223. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amő, I love.

	1. Prin	CIPAL PARTS.	
amŏ,	amāre,	amāvī,	amātum

2. Present System: Stem. amā.

	Z. PRESENT	SYSTEM; OT	EM, ama.	
INDICATIVE. Pres. amŏ Imp. amābam Fut. amābŏ	subjunctive. amem amārem	imper. amā amātŏ	infinitive. amāre	participle. amāns
	Gerund, 3. Perfect S	amandī, dō System; Ste	,	
Perf. amāvī Plup. amāveram F. P. amāverŏ	amāverim amāvissem		amāvisse	
	4 SUDING S	VSTEM · STE	v amāt	

4. Supine System; Stem, amāt.

| | amātūrus esse | amātūrus Supine, amātum, amātū.

224. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

amor, amārī, amātus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, amā.

	amor amābar	amer amärer	amāre	amārī
Fut.	amābor		amātor	
		Gerun	dire amandus	

	3. Supine Syst	ем; Ѕтем,	amāt.	
INDICATIVE. Perf. amātus sum Plup. amātus eram F. P. amātus erŏ Fut.	subjunctive. amātus sim amātus essem	IMPER.	infinitive. amātus esse amātum īrī	PARTICIPLE. amātus
	SECOND CO	NJUGAT	TION.	
225 . ACTIVE	VOICE.—Moneŏ	, I advise.		
	1. Princi	PAL PARTS		
moneŏ,	monēre,	monuī	, monitu	m.
	2. PRESENT SYS	тем; Ѕтем,	, monē.	
Pres. moneŏ Imp. monēbam Fut. monēbŏ	moneam monerem	monē monētŏ	monēre	monēns
	Gerund, mor			1
	3. Perfect Syst	гем; Ѕтем,	monu.	
Perf. monuī Plup. monueram F. P. monuerŏ	monuerim monuissem		monuisse	
	4. SUPINE SYST	ем ; Ѕтем,	monit.	
Fut.	Supine, mon		monitūrus esse itū.	monitūrus
226. PASSIV	E VOICE.—Mone	eor, I am a	dvised.	
	1. Princi	PAL PARTS	•	
moneor,	moněi	rī,	monitus su	m.
	2. Present Sys	TEM; STEM	, monē.	
Pres. moneor Imp. monebar Fut. monebor	monear monerer	monēre monētor , monendu	1	
	Gerandeve	, monenda	574	•
	3. Supine Syst	ем; Ѕтем,	monit.	
Don't manitus sum	I monitus sim		monitus essu	1 monitora

Perf. monitus sum Plup, monitus eram monitus essem monitus essem F. P. monitus erő Fut. monitus essem monitus essem

THIRD CONJUGATION.

227.	ACTIVE	VOICE,-Reg	zŏ.	I	rule.
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1	PRINCIPAL	PARTS

regŏ, regere, rēxī, rēctum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, rege.

Pres. Imp. Fut.	indicative. regč regēbam regam	regam regerem	rege regitŏ	regere	regēns
		Gerund, reg	gendī, dō, etc.		

3. Perfect System; Stem, rex.

Perf. rēxī rēxerim rēxissem
Plup. rēxeram rēxissem
F. P. rēxerŏ

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rect.

Fut. | rēctūrus esse | rēctūrus Supine, rēctum, rēctū.

228. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regor, regī, rēctus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, rege.

	regor	regar	regere	regi	
Fut.	regēbar regar	regerer	regitor		

Gerundive, regendus.

3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rect.

Perf. rēctus sum Plup. rēctus eram	rēctus sim rēctus essem	rēctus esse rēctus
F. P. rēctus erō		rāctum īrī
Fut.	·	Austral III

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

220	ACTIVE	VOICE	AndiX	I hear
220.	AULIVE	VUIUE	-Audio.	1 near.

1	PRINCIPAL	Dinne
1.	PRINCIPAL	PARTS.

audio, audire, audivi, auditum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, audī.

Pres. audio sudiam audī audīre audiens

Imp. audiam audīto

Gerund, audiendī, do, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, audiv.

Perf. audivi audiverim audivisse
Plup, audiveram audivissem
F. P. audiverò

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, audit.

Fut. | | | audītūrus esse | audītūrus Supine, audītum, audītū.

230. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS

audior, audīrī, audītus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, audi.

Pres. audior
Imp. audiebar audire audire
Fut. audiar

Gerundive, audiendus

3. SUPINE SYSTEM: STEM, audit.

Perf. audītus sum Plup. audītus eram F. P. audītus erŏ	audītus sim audītus essem	audītus esse	audītus
Fut.		audītum īrī	1

DEPONENT VERBS.

- 231. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But-
- 1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.
- 2. The gerundive generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
- 3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

NOTE.—The synopsis of a single example will sufficiently illustrate the peculiarities of Deponent Verbs.

232. Hortor, I exhort.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

hortor, hortārī. hortātus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, hortā.

:	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres.	hortor 1	horter	hortare -	hortārī	hortāns
Imp.	hortābar	hortārer			
	hortābor		hortator		
	Gerun	d, hortandî.	Gerundive.	hortandus.	

Gerundive, hortandus.

3. Supine System; Stem, hortat.

Perf. hortātus sum Plup. hortātus eram F. P. hortātus erŏ	hortātus sim hortātus essem	hortātus esse	hortātus
Fut.		hortātūrus esse	hortātūrus
	Chemina hantston	1. aut = 45	

Supine, hortātum, hortātū.

Note. - For the Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs in the other conjugations, see 268, 283, and 288. From these Principal Parts the pupil, by the aid of the paradigms already learned, will be able to inflect any Deponent Verb.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

233. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with sum, denotes an intended or future action:

¹ The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: hortor, hortāris, hortātur, hortāmur, hortāminī, hortantur. All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning, I exhort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Gerundire, which has the passive force, deserving to be exhorted, to be exhorted. The Gerundire, as it is passive in meaning, cannot be used in intransitive Deponent Verbs, except in an impersonal sense; see 301, 1.

Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Pres. amātūrus sum 1	amātūrus sim	amātūrus esse
Imp. amātūrus eram	amātūrus essem	
Fut. amātūrus erŏ		
Perf. amātūrus fuī	amātūrus fuerim	amātūrus fuisse
Plup, amātūrus fueram	amātūrus fuissem	
F. P. amātūrus fuerŏ 1		

234. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with *sum*, denotes *necessity* or *duty*.

Amandus sum, I must be loved.2

Pres. amandus sum	amandus sim	amandus esse
Imp. amandus eram	amandus essem	
Fut. amandus erõ		
Perf. amandus fui	amandus fuerim	amandus fuisse
Plup. amandus fueram	amandus fuissem	
F. P. amandus fuero		

Note.—The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with num; but as the Pres Part, with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. (amāns est = amat), and is accordingly soldon used, and as the Perf. Part, with sum is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

235. Perfects in **āvī**, **ēvī**, **īvī**, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop **v** and suffer contraction before **s** and **r**, and sometimes before **t**. Thus—

A with the following vowel becomes ā: amāvistī (amaistī), amāstī; amāveram (amaeram), amāram; amāvisse (amaisse), amāsse; amāvit (amait), amāt.

Ē with the following vowel becomes **5**: nēvī (to spin), nēvistī (neisti), nēstī; nēvērunt (neērunt), nērunt.

I-I and I-i become I: audivisti (audiisti), audisti; audivissem (audiiscem), audissem; audivit (audiit), audit.

1. Perfects in $iv\bar{i}$ sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally without contraction, except before $s: audiv\bar{i}$, audii, audiit, audieram; audicieti or audisti.

¹ The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: amātūrus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf. is rare. ² Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.

Then in prose the first i retains quantity and accent: audit-i, audit-it. See Seelmann, p. 94

- 2. Perfects in δvi .—The perfects of $n\delta sc\delta$, to know, and $mov s\delta$, to move, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before r and $s: n\delta visti$, $n\delta sti$.
- 3. Perfects in st and xt sometimes drop is, is, or sis: scripsisti, scripsti; dixisse, dixe; accessistis, accessis.
- 236. The ending **ere** for **erunt** in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Cicero and Caesar.

Note.—The form in ere does not drop v. In poetry erunt occurs.

- 237. Re for ris in the ending of the second Person of the Passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.
- 238. Dic, duo, fao, and fer, for dice, duce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of dico, duco, facio, and fero, to say, lead, make, and bear.

NOTE 1 .- Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.

Note 2.—Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of $fact\delta$, which change a into i: confice.

- 239. Undus and undi for endus and endi occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of Conj. III. and IV., especially after i: faciundus, from facio, to make; dicundus, from dico, to say.
- 240. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in—
- 1. Ibam for iebam, in the Imperfect Ind. of Conj. IV.: scibam for sciebam. See Imperfect of eb, to go, 295.
- 2. Ibo, Ibor, for iam, iar, in the Future of Conj. IV.: servibŏ for ser viam; opperibor for opperiar. See Future of eŏ, 295.
- 3. im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: edim, edis, etc., for edam, edas, etc.; duim (from duo, for do), for dem.—In sim, velim, nolim, malim (204 and 293), im is the common ending.
- 4. āssŏ, ēssŏ, and sŏ, in the Future Perfect, and āssim, ēssim, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of Conj. I., II., III.: faxŏ (facsŏ) for fēcerŏ¹ (from faciŏ); faxim for fēcerim¹; ausim for ausus sim (for auserim, from audeŏ). Rare examples are: levāssŏ for levāverŏ; prohibēssŏ for prohibuerŏ; jussŏ for jusserŏ; capsŏ for cēperŏ; axŏ for ēgerŏ; occisit for occīderit; taxъs for tetigerъ́s.
- 5. to and mino for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular, of the Future Imperative, Passive and Deponent: arbitrato, arbitranino for arbitrator; ūtunto for ūtuntor.
- 6. ier for i in the Present Passive Infinitive: amarier for amari; vidirier for videri.

¹ Remember that r in $er\delta$ and erim was originally s; see 31, 1; 204, foot-note 2.

ANALYSIS OF VERBAL ENDINGS.

- 241. The endings which are appended to the stems in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb contain three distinct elements:
 - 1. The Tense-Sign: ba in amā-ba-m, regē-bā-s.
 - 2. The Mood-Vowel: ā in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.
 - 3. The Personal Ending: s in mone-a-s, reg-a-s.

I. TENSE-SIGNS.

- 242. The Present is without any tense-sign: amā-s. So also the Future in Conjugations III. and IV.
- 243. In the other tense-forms of all regular verbs, the tense-sign is found in the auxiliary with which these forms are all compounded:

Amā-bam,2 amāv-eram; amā-bŏ, amāv-erŏ; monē-bam, monu-eram.

II. Mood-Signs.

- 244. The Indicative has no special sign to mark the Mood.
- 245. The Subjunctive has a long vowel—ā, ō, or 14—before the Personal Endings:

Mone-ā-mus, mone-ā-tis, am-ē-mus, am-ē-tis, s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis.

Note.—This vowel is shortened before final m and t, and generally in the Perfect before s, mus, and tis. moneam, amet, sit, fuer is, amaver imus, amaver itis.

- ¹ This Future is in form a Present Subjunctive, though it has assumed in full the force of the Future Indicative; see foot-note 4 below.
- ² Bam and eram are both auxiliary verbs in the Imperfect, the former from the stem bhu, the old form of fu in fu-i, and the latter from the stem es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Imperfect, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Pluperfect. Bb and erb are Future forms, the former from bhu, the latter from es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Future in Conjugations I. and II., the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Future Perfect. In the Subjunctive the tense-forms, except the Present, are compounded with Subjunctive tense-forms from es; thus, erem in regerom is for esem, the old form of essem; erim in rex-erim is for esim = sim, and issem in rex-issem is for essem; thus the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive of sum added to the Perfect stem form the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
 - ³ This \tilde{e} comes from a- \tilde{e} , of which the \tilde{e} alone is the true Mood-Sign.
- ⁴ The Latin Subjunctive contains the forms of two distinct Moods—the Subjunctive with the sign ā, and the Optative with the sign ī, sometimes contained in ē for α-ī. Thus: Subjunctive, mone-ā-mus, audi-ā-tis; Optative, s-ī-mus, rēxer-ī-tis, am-ē-mus for ama-ī-mus, reger-ō-s for regera-ī-s. The Subjunctive and Optative forms, originally distinct, have in the Latin been blended into one Mood, called the Subjunctive, and are used without any difference of meaning. Thus the Mood in mone-ā-mus, a Subjunctive form, has precisely the same force as in am-ē-mus, an Optative form. The First Person Singular of Futures in am-regam, audiam, etc.—is in form a Subjunctive, while the other Persons, regēs, et., etc., audiēs, et., etc., are in form Optatives.

246. The Imperative is distinguished by its Personal Endings: see 247, 8.

III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

247. The Personal Endings are formed from ancient pronominal stems, and have, accordingly, the force of pronouns in English. They are as follows:

	PERSON.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	MEANING.
Singular.1	First	m	r	I
	Second	g	ris	thou, you
	Third	t	tur	he, she, it
Phyral.2	First	mus	mur	we
	Second	tis	minI ⁸	ข าน
•	Third	nt	ntur	they
		EXAMPLE	es.	
amāba-m	amāl	oa-r	regő	rego-r
amābā-s	amā	oā-ris	regi-s	rege-ris
amāba-t	amā	oā-tur	regi-t	regi-tur
amābā-mus	amā	bā-mur	regi-mus	regi-mur
amābā-tis	nābā-tis amābā-minī		regi-tis	regi-minī
amāba-nt	amā	ba-ntur	regu-nt	regu-ntur

- 1. OMITTED.—In the Present,⁴ Perfect, and Future Perfect Ind. of all the conjugations, and in the Future Ind. of Conjugations I. and II., the ending m does not appear. In these forms the First Person ends in 5.5 amõ, amābō, amāverō; except in the Perfect, where it ends in 1.6 amāvī.
- 2. The endings of the Perfect Active are peculiar. They are the same as in ful:

¹ In the Singular these Personal Endings contain each—(1) in the Active Voice one pronominal stem, m, I; s, thou, you; t, he; and (2) in the Passive two such stems, one denoting the Person, and the other the Passive Voice: thus, in the ending tur, t ($t\bar{u}$) denotes the person, and r, the voice. R of the first person stands for m-r.

² In the Plural the Endings contain each—(1) in the Active two pronominal stems: $mu \cdot s = m$ (mu) and s. I and you, i. e., we; tis = t (the original form for s, thou, as seen in $t\bar{u}$, thou) and $s_i = s$ and s, thou and thou, i. e., you; nt = n and t, he and he, i. e., they; and (2) in the Passive three such stems, the third denoting the Passive Voice: thus in ntur, nt (ntu) denotes the person and number, and r, the voice.

³ Minī was not originally a Personal Ending, but the Plural of a Passive Participle not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (μενοι). Amāminī, originally amāminī estis, means you are loved, as amātī estis means you have been loved.

Except in sum, I am, and inquam, I say.

⁵ The origin of this final \check{o} is uncertain. Curtius regards it as simply the *thematic* vowel, but Meyer recognizes in it a *suffix* combined with the *thematic* vowel; see Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 199, 200; Meyer, p. 349.

Probably a part of the stem; but see Curtius, Verbum, H., p. 173; Papillon, pp. 194-196; also two papers by the author, on the Formation of the Tenses for Completed Action to the Latin Finite Verb; Transactions of the Am. Phil. Assoc., 1874 and 1875.

	SINGULAR.	PLUBAL.
First Pers.	fu-1 1	fu-i-mus
Second	fu-is-tī	fu-is-tis
Third	fu-i-t	fu-ēru-nt or ēre

3. The Imperative Mood has the following Personal Endings:

	ACTIVE.		PASS	IVE.
Pres. Second Pers.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	Singular, re	PLUBAL. min!
Fut. Second	tŏ	tōte	tor	
Third	tŏ	ntŏ	tor	ntor

248. Infinitives, Participles, Gerunds, and Supines are formed with the following endings:

Infinitive Pre	Ü	Active. re (ere) .	Passive. rī (erī), ī
Per		isse	us esse
Fut		ūrus esse	um īrī
Participle Pre	sent .	ns	
Fut	ure	ūrus	
Per	fect		us
Ger	undive		ndus
Gerund		ndī	
Supine		um, û	

FORMATION OF STEMS.

249. The three Special Stems are all formed from the Verb Stem.

I. PRESENT STEM.

250. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the Verb Stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugations, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, $am\bar{a}$, $d\bar{e}l\bar{e}$, and $aud\bar{e}$ are both Present Stems and Verb Stems.

¹ M is omitted in the first person, and $t\bar{t}$, an ancient form of $s\bar{t}$, s, is used in the second. Otherwise the endings themselves are regular, but in the second person $t\bar{t}$ and $t\bar{t}s$ are preceded by is, and $t\bar{t}s$ and $t\bar{t}s$ is for $t\bar{t}s$ and $t\bar{t}s$. Thus $t\bar{t}s$ a compound of $t\bar{t}u$ and $t\bar{t}s$ are preceded by is, and $t\bar{t}s$ are preceded by is, and $t\bar{t}s$ and $t\bar{t}s$ for $t\bar{t}s$ in like manner, may be a compound of $t\bar{t}u$ and $t\bar{t}s$ for $t\bar{t}s$, and $t\bar{t}s$ for $t\bar{t}s$ and $t\bar{t}s$ for $t\bar{t}s$ for

² In the Present the ending is dropped in the Sing. Act., and the endings te and reare shortened from tis and ris of the Indicative by dropping s and changing final i into e; see 24, 1, note. In the Future, to of the second person corresponds to to of the Perfect Ind.; to and nto f the third person to t and nt. Tor and ntor add r to to and nto Tota doubles the pronominal stem.

The final vowels are generally explained as derived from aja, which became, in Doni I., aja, shortened to δ in $am \delta$, and to δ in the other forms, as $am \delta$ and $am \delta$ are $am \delta$ and $am \delta$

- 251. The Present Stem, when not the same as the Verb Stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:
 - 1. By adding a short vowel, called the Thematic vowel: 1

regő; Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege; to rule. canő; "can; cane; to sing.

2. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by n, sc, or t:

Present Stem, sine; sinő: Stem, si; to permit. " spernő: sper, spre; sperne; to spurn. " " temno; tem; to despise. temne; " " veterasco: to grow old. vetera; veterasce: " cresco: 66 to increase. crē: cresce: .. 66 plecto: pleo: to braid. pleote:

3. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by i or j:

capič; Stem, cap; Present Stem, cap-je, cape; to take.
pollč; pel; pel-je, pelle; to drive.
ourrč; cur; cur-je, curre; to run.

4. By adding a *Thematic rowel* and inserting n—changed to m before a labial, b or p; see 33, 3:

frango; Stem, frag; Present Stem, frange; to break: fundo; "fud; "funde; to pour. rumpo; "rumpe; to burst.

5. By adding a, e, or 1:

juvo; Stem, juv; Present Stem, juva; to assist.
video; "vid; vide; to see.
haurio; "haur for haus; "hauri; to draw.

6. By reduplicating the stem:

sistő; Stem, sta; Present Stem, sista, siste; to place.
serő; "sa; sisa, sise, sere; to sow.

Norz.—Sometimes two of these methods are united in the same stem:

gīgnő; Stem, gen; Present Stem, gigene, gīgne; to beget.
nanoīsco; "nanoīsco; to obtain.

Conj. II., ejo, shortened to eð in dêl-eð, and to e in dêl-ê-mus; and in Conj. IV., ejo, shortened to ið in aud-tō, to iu in aud-iu-nt, and to i in aud-i-mus; see 335, foot-note.

- ¹ This *Thematic vowel*, originally a_i is generally weakened to e or i: reg-e-re, reg-i-mus; but sometimes it appears to take the form of δ or u: reg- δ , reg-u-nt. There is, towever, some difference of opinion in regard to the origin of δ in such cases; see 247. 1, foot-note δ
- ² With variable Thematic vowel; see foot-note 1, above. J, pronounced g, assimilated to l and r in pelle and curre, as in the Greek $\beta \dot{a} \lambda \lambda \omega$, from $\beta \dot{a} \lambda j \omega$. See Curtius. Verbum. I., p. 300.
 - 3 For stista for stasta. The e in siste takes the several forms of the Thematic vowel.
- ⁶S changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1. The vowel a of the stem is weakened to i before s, but to e before r; see 24, 1 and 2.
 - 5 Reduplication with Thematic vowel.
 - 6 N inserted and i-sc-e added.

II. PERFECT STEMS.

252. Vowel Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding v:

amő (a-ð), a	māvi; S	tem,	amā ;	Perfect Stem,	amāv;	to love.
dēleč, d	ēlēvī :		dēlē ;	"	dělěv;	to destroy.
	udīvī:		audī;		audīv ;	to hear.

1. In verbs in uo, the Perfect Stem is the same as the Verb Stem:

```
acuč, acui; Stem, acu; Perfect Stem, acu; to sharpen.
```

253. Many Liquid Stems, and a few others, form the Perfect Stem by adding u:

alŏ,	alui ;	Stem	al;	Perfect Stem	, alu;	to nourish.
fremő.	fremui;	66	frem;	"	fremu;	to rage.
teneč,	tenui ;		ten;	11	tenu;	to hold.
doceó.	docui :	16	doo:	46	docu;	to teach.

254. Most Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding s:

```
rego, rexi; Stem, reg; Perfect Stem, rex = rege; to rule.
sortbo, sortps; "scrib; scrips = sortbs; to write.
carpo, carps; "carp; "carps; to pluck.
```

255. A few Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem without any suffix whatever. But of these—

I. Some reduplicate the stem: 1

```
cano, cecini; Stem, can; Perfect Stem, cecin; to sing.
```

1. The Reduplication consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with e—generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e, i, o, or u, otherwise with e; see examples under 271. 1. and 272. 1.

2. The STEM-Vowel a is generally weakened to i, sometimes to e: cadb, cecidi (for cecadi), to fall.

3. In Veres beginning with Sp or St, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the s: $sponde\delta$, $spopond\delta$ (for $spospond\delta$), to promise; $st\delta$, $stet\delta$ (for $stesi\delta$), to stand.

4. In Compounds the reduplication is generally dropped, but it is retained in the compounds of dō, to give; stō, to stand; discō, to learn; poscō, to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of curro, to run; re-spondeo, respondo, to answer; circum-dō, circum-dedi; circum-stō, circum-steti, to encircle. The compounds of dō which are of the third conjugation change of the reduplication into i: ad-dō, ad-didi (for ad-dedi), to add; see 259, 1.

II. Some lengthen the Stem-Vowel:9

```
emő, êmi; Stem, em; Perfect Stem, êm; to buy.
agő, êgi; "ag; "èg; to drive.
ab-igő, ab-égi; "abig; "abeg; to drive away.
```

Note.—The stem-vowels a and (in compounds) i generally become $\hat{\epsilon}$, as in $ag\delta$ and $ab-4g\delta$.

III. Some retain the stem unchanged:1

Icŏ,	īoī ;	Stem, To;	Perfect Stem,	Ic;	to strike.
ico, viso,	visi :	Stem, Ic;	"	vis:	to visit.

Nors.—Of the few verbs belonging to this class, nearly all have the stem-syllable long

III. SUPINE STEM.

256. The Supine Stem adds t to the Verb Stem:

amő,² dĭcŏ, moneŏ, dĕleŏ, audiŏ, carpŏ,	amātum; dietum; monitum; dēlētum; audītum; carptum;	amā; die; moni;³ dēlē; audī; carp;	Supine Stem,	amāt; dict; monit; dēlēt; audīt; carpt;	to love. to say. to advise. to destroy. to hear. to pluck.
carpo,	carptum;	 carp;	**	carpt;	to pluck.

1. Stems in d and t, most stems in 1 and r, and a few others, change t into s:

laedo,	laesum;	Stem,	laed;	Supine Stem,	laes;4	to hurt.
vertō,	versum;	"	vert;	- "	vers; 4	to turn.
verro,	versum;	"	verr;	46	vers;	to brush.
fallŏ,	falsum;	"	fall;	44	fals;	to deceive.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS. •

FIRST CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—Stem in a: Perfect in vi or ui.

257. Principal Parts in-ō, āre, āvī, ātum. 6

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

o bestow.
o honor.
o free.
o name.
o fight.
o hope.

Note 1.—Pôtô, are, avī, atum, to drink, has also a supine, pôtum.

Note 2.—Cēnātus, from cēnō, 'to dine,' and jūrātus, from jūrō, 'to swear,' are active in meaning, having dined, etc. Pētus, from pōtō, is also sometimes active in meaning

See list, 272, 3.
For amaö.
See 207.

⁴ Lacs is for lacdt, plaus for plaudt, vis for vidt, vers for certt, fals for fallt, vers for vertt; see 35, 3, 2), note.

⁵ The Perfect Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation. In this classification the regular or usual formation is first given with a few examples, then complete lists (1) of all the simple verbs which deviate from this formation, and (2) of such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.

 $^{^{6}}$ It is deemed unnecessary longer to retain the double mark \simeq over final o in verbs. The pupil has now learned that this vowel may be short, though it is generally long in the Augustan poets.

258. Principal Parts in-o, are, ui, itum.1

crepō cubō	crepāre cubāre	crepuī cubuī	crepitum, ² . cubitum, ³	to creak. to recline.
domō	domāre	domuĭ	domitum,	to tame.
ēnecō	ēnecāre	ēnecuī	ēnectum,4	to kill.
fricō	fricāre	fricul	frictum, { fricatum, {	to rub.
micō	micāre	micul		to glitter.
plicō	plieāre	∫ plicāvī } plicuī	plicātum,) plicitum, 6 (to fold.
secō	secāre	secuī	sectum,	to cut.
sono	sonāre	sonuī	sonitum,	to sound.
tonō	tonāre	tonuī		to thunder
vetō	vetāre	vetuI	vetitum,	to forbid.

CLASS II.—PERFECT IN L

259. Principal Parts in-o, are, I, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.8

stō	dare stare	stet i	stătum,	to give. to stand.
	2 W1T1	H LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.8	
ju võ	ju vā r.	jūvī	jūtum," (lavātum,")	to assist.
lav o	lavāre	lavī	lautum, lotum,	to wash.

Note 1.—In $d\bar{o}$ the characteristic a is short by exception: ''' dabam, dabo, darem, etc. Four compounds of $d\bar{o}$ —oircumdo, $pessumd\bar{o}$, $satisd\bar{o}$, and $v\bar{e}numd\bar{o}$ —are conjugated like the simple verb—the rest are of the Third Conjugation (271). The basis of several of these compounds s $d\bar{o}$, 'to place,' originally distinct from $d\bar{o}$, 'to give.'

NOTE 2.—Compounds of sto generally want the Supine. In the Perfect they have stetl, if the first part is a dissyllable, otherwise still: adsto, adstore, adstitl. Disto and exsto want Perfect and Supine.

- ¹ Note deviations in the Supine.
- Incrept, are, ui (avi), itum (atum); discrept, are, ui (avi), ---.
- ³ Compounds which insert m, as $accumb\delta$, etc., are of Conj. III.; see 273.
- 4 The simple neco is regular, and even in the compound the forms in \(\tilde{a}v\) and \(\tilde{a}tum\) occur.
 - Dimico, are, avi (ui), atum; emico, are, ui, atum.
 - Duplico, multiplico, replico, and supplico, are regular: are, avi, atum.
- 7 Seco has participle secātūrus; sono, sonātūrus; juvo, juvātūrus, in compounds also jūtūrus, Resonā has Perfect resonāvā. Most compounds of sono want the Supine
 - 8 See 255, I. and II.
 - In poetry, lavo is sometimes of Conj. III.: lavo, lavere, lavo, etc.
- 10 This short vowel is explained by the fact that $d\tilde{a}$ is a root-verb formed directly from the root da without the suffix from which the \tilde{a} is derived in other verbs in this conjugation; see 250, foot-note.

260. DEPONENT VERBS.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular.

c ōnor	conārī	cōnātus sum,	to endeavor
hor tor	hortārī	hortātus sum,	to exhort.
mIror	mīrārī	mīrātus sum,	to admire.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN &: PERFECT IN VI OR UI.

261. Principal Parts in-eo, ēre, ēvī, ētum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum,	to destroy.
compleō	complēre	complēvī	complētum,¹	to fill.
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētum,	to weep.
neō	nēre	nēvī	nētum,³	to spin.

262. Principal Parts in-eo, ere, ut, itum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dēbe ō hab eō	dēbēre habēre	dēbuī habuī	dēbitum, habitum,	to owe. to have.
moneō	monēre	monui	monitum,	to advise.
noceō	nocēre	nocuī	nocitum,	to hurt.
pāreō	p ārēre	pāruī	pāritum,	to obey.
placeō	placēre	placui	placitum,	to please.
taceō	tacēre	tacul	tacitum,	to be silent.

Note 1.—Many verbs with the Perfect in us want the Supine. The following are the most important:

candeo, to shine.	madeō,	to be wet.	sorbeō,	to swallow.
egeo, to want.	niteō,	to shine.	splendeč	, to shine.
ēmineo, to stand forth.	oleō,	to smell.	studeo,	to study.
floreo, to bloom.	palleo,	to be pale.	stupeō,	to be amazed.
frondeo, to bear leaves.	pateō,	to be open.	timeō,	to fear.
horreo, to shudder.	rubeō,	to be red.	torpeo,	to be torpid.
lateo, to be hid.	sileō,	to be silent.	vireō,	to be green.

NOTE 2.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine. The following are the most important:

albeō,	to be white.	h	iebeō,	to be blunt.		to be sad.
	to be bald.			to be moist.		to be powerful.
	to be gray.			to threaten.		to shine.
naveo,	to be yellow.	la	acteō,	to suck.	squāleč,	to be filthy.

¹ So other compounds of the obsolete pleo: expleo, impleo, etc.

² To these may be added aboleo, abolère, abolèvi, abolitum, 'to destroy,' with Supine in itum. See also abolicoo, 277.

to increase.

to indulge.

auctum,

indultum.

CLASS II.—STEM IN c, n, r, or s: Perfect in ui.

263. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, tum or sum.2

These endings belong to the following verbs:

cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsuī	cēnsum, ³	to think. to teach.
doceō	docēre	docuī	doctum,	
misceō	miscēre	miscuī	{ mīstum, } } mīxtum, {	to mix.
teneð	tenēre	tenuī	tentum,4 tostum,	to hold.
torreð	torrēre	torruī		to roast.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

ลบรโ

indulsī

264. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, tum.

augēre

indulgēre

augeo

indulgeð

torqueō	torquere torsī		torsī tortum, to twis	
265.	Principal Parts	in—eō, ēre, sī,	sum.2	
algeō	algēre	alsī		to be cold.
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum,	to burn.
cônīveō	cônīvēre	{ conīvī } } conīxī }		to wink at
frīgeō	frīgēre	frīxī (rare)		to be cold.
fulgeō	fulgēre	fulsī	5	to shine.
haereō	haerëre	haesī	haesum,6	to stick.
jubeō	jubëre	jussī	jussum,	to order.
lūceō	lücēre	lūxī		to shine.
lūgeō	lügēre	lūxī		to mourn.
maneō	manëre	mānsī	mānsum,	to remain.
mulgeō	mulgëre	mulsī	mulsum,	to milk.
mulceō	mulcēre	mulsI	mulsum,	to soothc.
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum,	to laugh.
su āde ō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum,	to advise.
tergeō	tergēre	tersī	tersum,	to wipe.
turgeő	turgēre	$turs\bar{\imath}$ $(rare)$		$to\ swell.$
urgeo (urg	ucō) urgēre	ursī	*	to press.

Note.—Cieō, ciēre, civī, citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, ciō, cire, civī, citum, from which it seems to have obtained its Perfect. In compounds the forms of the Fourth Conj prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.

¹ For convenience of reference, a General List of all verbs in olving irregularities will be found on page 383.

² The Present Stem adds ê; see 251, 5. For phonetic changes, see 33-36.

³ Participle census and censitus.—Percenseo wants Supine: recenseo has recensum and recensitum.

⁴ In most compounds the Supine is rare.

⁵ Poetic, fulgo, fulgere, etc.

⁶ The stem of haereo is haes. The Present sdds \hat{e} and changes s to r between twe vowels. In haesi and haesum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

¹ In compounds sometimes mulctum.

266. Principal Parts in-eo, ere, I, tum.

WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

caveō.	cavēre	cāvī	cautum,	to beware
faveð	favēre	fāvī	fautum,	to favor.
foveō	fovēre	fōvī	fōtum,	to cherish.
moveō	movēre	mōvī	mōtum,	to move.
paveō	pavēre	pāvī		to fear.
voveō	vovēre	vovī	võtum,	to vow.

267. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, sum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.1

mordeō	mordēre	momordī	morsum,	to bite.
pendeō	pendēre	pependī	pēnsum,	to hang.
spondeō	spondēre	spopondī	spōnsum,	to promise,
tondeō	tondēre	totondī	tōnsum,	to sheur.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessum,	to sit.
videō	vidēre	vīdī	vīsum,	to see

3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

contveo	cŏnīvēre	conīvī, conīxī	8	to wink at.
ferveō	fervēre	fervī, ferbuī		to boil.
langueō	languēre	languī		to be langurd
liqueo	liquēre	liquī, licuī		to be liquid.
prandeč	prandēre	prandi	prānsum,4	to dine.
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī		to creak.

268. DEPONENT VERBS.

1. Regular.

liceor	licērī	licitus sum,	to bid.
mereor	merērī	meritus sum.	to deserve.
polliceor	pollicērī	pollicitus sum,	to promise.
pomeou	pomeen		to promoce
tueor	tuērī	tuitus sum,	to protect.
		} tūtus sum, ∫	
vereor	verērī	veritus sum,	to fear.

2. Irregular.

		. Irregular.	
fateor	fatērī	fassus sum, ⁵	to confess.
medeor	medērī		to cure.
misereor	miserērī	miseritus sum, misertus sum, misertus sum,	to pity.
reor	rērī	ratus sum,	to think.

¹ For reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4.

² So circumsedeo and supersedeo. Other compounds thus: assideo, êre, assediassessum; but dissideo, praesideo, and resideo, want Supine.

³ Observe that the supine stem is wanting in most of these verbs.

⁴ Participle, pransus, in an active sense, having dined.

Donfiteor, eri, confessus : so profiteor.

3. Semi-Deponent-Deponent in the Perfect,

	-	-	•
audeō	audēre	ausus sum,	to dare.
gaud eõ	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum,	to rejoice.
soleō	solēre	solitus sum.	to be accustomed

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Note.—This conjugation contains the primitive verbs of the language; see 335.

CLASS I .- STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I

269. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant. The following are examples:

carpo	carpere	carpsī	carptum,2	to pluck.
cingō	cingere	cinxi(gsi)	cinctum,	to gird.
alco.	dīcere	dīxī	dictum,	to say.
dūcō	dūcere	dűxī	ductum,	to lead.
exstinguõ	exstinguere	exstinxī	exstinctum,3	to extinguish.
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestum,	to carry.
nūbō	nübere	nūpsī	nūptum,	to marry.
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum,	to rule.
sūmō	sūmere	s u m ps i	sümptum,	to take.
trahō	trahere	traxī	tractum,	$to\ draw.$
ūrō	ūrere	ussī	üstum,	to burn.
vehõ	vehere	vēxī	vēctum,	to carry.
vîvõ	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum,	to live.

270. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, sum.1

210.	r iincipai r ai	(or 10)	, ere, si, suiii.	
cēdō	cedere	cēssī	cessum,	to yield.
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausum,4	to close.
dīvidō	dīvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsum,	to divide.
ēvādō	ēvādere	ēvāsī	ēvāsum,	to evade.
fīgō	figere	fīxī	fīxum,	to fasten.
flectō	flectere	flēxī	flexum,	to bend.
frendő	frendere		frēsum, fressum,	to gnash.
laedõ	laedere	laesī	laesum,4	to hurt.
lūdō	lūdere	lūsī	lūsum,	to play.
mittō	mittere	mīsī	missum,	to send.
mergő	mergere	mersī	mersum,	to dip.
nectō	nectere	{ nēxī } { nexuī 6 }	nexum,	to bind
pectō	pectere	pēxī	pexum,	to comb.

¹ For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

² The stem-vowel is often changed in compounds: carpō, dē-cerpō; rego, dē-rigō; for this change, see 344, 4; also 221.

³ So other compounds of stinguō (rare): dīstinguō, etc.

⁴ Compounds of claudō have ñ for au, con-clādō; those of laedō, i for ae, il-līdō.
those of plaudō generally ō for au, ex-plōdō; those of quatiō, cu for qua, con-cutto.

So other compounds of vado.

⁶ Compounds take this form in the Perfect

plecto	plectere	plēxī	plexum,	to plait.
plaudō	plaudere	plausī	plausum,1	to applaud.
premō	premere	pressī 2	pressum,	to press.
quatio	quatere	quassī 2	quassum,1	to shake.
spargč	spargere	sparsī	sparsum,	to scatter.
rādō	rådere	rāsī	rāsum,	to shave.
rōdō	rõdere	rðsī	rosum,	to gnaw.
tergō	tergere	tersī	tersum,	to wipe off.
trūdô	trüdere	trūsī	trūsum,	to thrust.

271. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, ī, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

abdō	abdere	abdidī	abditum,4	to hide.
cano	canere	cecinī	cantum,5	to sing.
crēdō	crēdere	crēdidī	crēditum,8	to believe.
discō	discer e	didicī		to learn.
pangō	pangere	pepigī	pactum,	to bargain.
pạngō	pangere	{ panxî } pēgī	panctum, ?)	to fix in.
pariō	parere	peper	partum,8	to bring forth.
sistô	sistere	stitI	statum,9	to place.
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tactum, 10	to touch.
tend ō	tendere	tetendî	{ tentum, 10 } tensum, {	to stretch.
tollô	tollere	sustulī	sublatum, 11	to raise.
věndô	vēndere	vēndidī	venditum,	to sell.
pungō	pungere	pupugī	punctum,12	to prick.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

agō	agere	ēgī	āctum,18	to drive.
capiō	capere	cēpī	captum,14	to ta ke.
emő	emere	ēmī	ēmptum,16	to buy.

- 1 See page 127, foot-note 4.
- 2 See 34, 1, note; 35, 3, 2).
- Also tergeo, torgere, etc.; compounds take this form; see 265.
- 4 So all compounds of $d\bar{o}$ except those of Conjugation I.; see 259, note 1.
- * Concino, ere, concinui, ----; so occino and praecino: other compounds want Perfect and Supine.
 - 6 Explained as a compound of do; see abdo.
- 7 Compingō, ere, compēgi, compactum; so also impingō. Dēpangō wants Perfect: repangō, Perfect and Supine.
 - b Participle, pariturus: compounds are of Conjugation IV.
 - * Compounds thus: consisto, ere, constitu, constitum; but circumstett also occurs.
 - 10 Compounds drop the reduplication.
 - 11 Attollo and extollo want Perfect and Supine.
 - 12 Compounds thus: compungo, ere, compunxi, compunctum.
- 18 So oircumago and perago; satago wants Perfect and Supine. Other compounds shange a into i in the Present: abigo, ere, abēgī, abāctum; but coigo becomes cigō, ere, coēgī, coāctum, and đeigo, dēgo, ere, dēgī, without Supine. Prādigo wants Supine, and ambigo, Perfect and Supine.
 - 14 Se antecapio; other compounds thus: accipio, ere, accepi, acceptum.
 - 16 So coemo; other compounds thus: adimo, ere, ademi, ademptum

faciō	facere	fēcī	factum,1	to make.
fugiō	fugere	fügī	fugitum,	to flee.
jaciô	jacere	jēcī	jactum,2	to throw.
frangō	frangere	frēgī	fractum,3	to break.
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctum,⁴	to read.
linquō	linquere	līquī	b	to leave.
scabō	scabere	scābī		to scratch.
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victum,	to conquer
rumpõ	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum,	to burst.

272. Principal Parts in-o (or io), ere, I, sum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

cado	cadere	cecidi	cāsum,1	to fall,
caedō	caedere	cecīdī	caesum,8	to cut.
currō	currere	e uc urr ī	cursum,9	to run.
fallō	fallere	fefellī	falsum, 10	to deceive.
parcō	parcere	pepercī (parsī)	parsum,11	to spare.
pellō	pellere	pepulī	pulsum, 19	to drive.
pendō	pendere	pependi	pēnsum,12	to weigh.
posco	poscere	poposci	18	to demana.
tundō	tundere	tutudI	{ tūnsum, 19 } tūsum,	to beat.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

edō	eder e	ēdī	ēsum,	to eat.
fodiō	fodere	födī	fossum,	to dig.
fundō	fundere	fudi	fūsum,	to pour

3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

accendo	accendere	accendi	accēnsum,14	to kindle.
cūdō	cūdere	cūdī	cūsum,	to forge. to defend.
dēfendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsum,14	to defend.

- ¹ Passive irregular: fio, fleri, factus sum; see 294. So satisfacio and compounda of facio with verbs; but compounds with prepositions thus: conficio, conficere confecio, confectum; with regular Passive, conficior, conficio, confectus sum.
- ² Superjacio has jactum or jectum in Supine: compounds with monosyllable preponitions thus: abiceo, abicere, abject, abjectum; see page 20, foot-note 1.
 - 3 Compounds thus: confringo, ere, confregi, confractum.
- 4 So compounds, except (1) colligō, ere, collēgō, collēctum; so dēligō, ēligō, ēligō-, ēligō-, ēligō-, ere, dīlēctum; so intellegō, neglegō, though neglēgō occurs in the Perfect.
 - 5 Compounds with Supine : relinquo, ere, reliqui, relictum.
 - 6 For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.
 - 7 Incidō, ere, incidī, incāsum; so occidō and recidō; other compounds want Suplne.
 - 8 Compounds thus: concido, ere, concidi, concisum.
- 9 Excurro and praccurro generally retain the reduplication: excucurri, praccucurri; other compounds generally drop it.
 - 10 Refello, ere, refelli, without Supine.
- N Comparco, ere, comparso, comparson, also with e for a: comperco, ere. etc. Imparco and reparco want Perfect and Suplne.
 - 12 Compounds drop reduplication, 255, I., 4
 - 18 Compounds retain reduplication, 255, I., 4.
 - 14 So other compounds of the obsolete cando and fendo.

findō	findere	fidī (findī)	fissum,	to part.
Īcō	Icere	īcī	Ictum,	to strike.
mandō	mandere	mandi	mānsum,	to chew.
pandō	pandere	pandī -	(passum,)) pānsum, (to open.
pīnsō (pīsō)	pInsere	{ pinsi { pinsuf	(pinsitum,) pistum,) pinsum,	to pouna
prehendō	prehendere,	prehendī	prehēnsum,1	to grasp.
scandō	scandere	scandī	scansum,	to climb.
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissum,	to rend.
solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtum,	to toose.
vellō	vellere	vellī (vulsī)	vulsum,	to pluck.
verrð	verrere	verrī	versum,	to brush.
vertō	vertere	vertī	versum,3	to turn.
vīsō	vīsere	vīsī	vīsum,	to visit
volvõ	volvere	volvī	volūtum,	$to \ roll.$

Note 1.—Some verbs with the Perfect in si or i want the Supine:

ango, ere, anxi,	to squeeze.	metuō, ere, î,	to fear.
annuō, ere, ī,	to assent.	pluo, ere, ī, or plūvī,	to rain.
batuō, ere, ī,	to beat.	psallo, ere, i,	to play the har?
bibō, ere, ī.	to drink.	sido, ere, i,4	to sit down.
congruō, ere, i,	to agree.	ningō, ere, nīnxī,	to snow.
ingruō, ere, ī,	to assail.	strido, ere, i,	to creak.
lambō, ere, ī,	to lick.	sternuō, ere, ī,	to sneeze.

Note 2.—Some verbs want both Perfect and Supine:

clangō,	to clang.	hīscō,	to gape.
elaudō,	to be lame.	vādō,	to go.
fatisco,	to gape.	temnō,	to despise.
glisco,	to grow.	vergō,	to incline.

CLASS II.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN ui.

273. Principal Parts in-5 (or i5), ere, uī, itum.

accumbō	accumbere	accubu ī	accubitum,	to recline.
alõ	alere	aluī	{ alitum, }	to nourish.
depsō	depsere .	depsuI	depsitum, depstum,	to knead.
ēlicið	ēlicere	ēlicuī	ēlicitum,	to elicit.
fremō	fremere	fremuī	fremitum,	to rage.
gemõ	gemere	gemuî	gemitum,	to groan.
gignō	gignere	genuI	genitum,	to beget.
molō	molere	moluī	molitum,	to grind.

¹ Often written prēndo, prēndere, etc.

² V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: solitum for solvtum.

³ Compounds of de, prac, re, are generally deponent in the Present, Imperfect, and Future.

⁴ Perfect and Supine generally supplied from $sede \delta$; hence $s\bar{e}di$, sessum. So in compounds.

⁵ Ses ēvādo, 270.

But contemno, ere, contempsi, contemptum.

⁷ So other compounds of cumbo, cubō; see cubō, 258.

Other compounds of lacio thus: allicio, allicere, alleri, allectum

pīnsö	pinsere	{ pīnsuī { pīnsī	{ pinsitum, } pistum, } pinsum, }	to crush.
p ōnō	pōnere	posui	positum,	to place.
strepō	strepere	strepuī	strepitum,	to make a noise.
vomō	vomere	vomuī	vomitum,	to vomit.

Note.— $Comp\tilde{e}sco$. 'to restrain'; excello,1 'to excel'; furo, 'to rage'; sterto, 'te snore'; and tremo, 'to tremble,' have the Perfect in $u\bar{\epsilon}$, but want the Supine.

274. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, uī, tum.

colō cōnsulō	colere cōnsulere	coluī cōnsuluī	cultum, consultum,	to cultivate to consult.
occulõ	occulere	occului	occultum,	to hide.
rapiō	rapere	rapuī	raptum, ⁹	to snatch.
serō	serere	seruī	sertum,	to connect.
texō	texere	texuī	textum,	to weave.

275. Principal Parts in-ō, ere, sui, sum.

mető	metere	messul 3	messum,	to reap.
meto	metere		messum,	to reap.
nectō	nectere	nēxī } nexuī }	nexum,	to bind.

CLASS III.—Stem in a Vowel: Perfect in vi or i.

276. The following verbs have the Perfect in avi from a stem in a:

pāscō 4	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum,	to feed.
sternő	sternere	strāvi	strātum,	to strew.
veterāscō	veterāscere	veterāvī		to grow old.

277. The following verbs have the Perfect in evi from a stem in 6:

all.	The following	verbs have th	e refrect in	TAL HOM a Stein in .
abolēscõ	abolēscere	abolēvī	abolitum,5	to disappear.
cernō	cernere	crēvi	crētum,	to decide.
crēscō	crēscere	crēvī	crētum,6	to grow.
quiēscō	quiescere	quiēvī	quietum,	to rest.
spernō	spernere	sprēvī	sprētum,	to spurn.
suēscō	suescere	suēvī	suētum,	to become accustomed.

Note.—Berő, serere, sévi, satum,7 to sow.

278. The following verbs have the Perfect in IVI from a stem in I:

arcēssō	arcëssere	arcēssīvī	arcēssītum,	to call for.
capēssō	capëssere	capēssīvī	capēssītum,	to lay hold of.
cupiō	cupere	cupīvī	cupītum,	to desire.
facēssō	facēssere	facēssīvī (facēssītum,	to make.

¹ Other compounds of cello want the Perfect and Supine, except percello, percellors percelli, percellor.

² Compounds thus: corripio, corripere, corripui, correptum.

³ The Perfect in suī seems to be a double formation, sī enlarged to suī.

⁴ The stem of pāscō is pā, pās; the Present Stem adds sce; see 251, 2.

⁵ So inolèsco; but adolèsco has Supine adultum; exolèsco, evolètum; obsolèsco obsolètum.

⁶ Incresco and succresco want the Suplae.

⁷ Compounds thus : conserv. conserve. consevi. consitum.

incēssõ	incēssere	incēssīvī }		to attack.
lacessō	lacessere	lacēssīvī	lacessītum.	to provoke
linō	linere	līvī, lēvī	litum,	to smear.
nōscō	nōscere	nōvī	nőtum,¹	to know.
petō	petere	petīvī	petītum,	to ask.
quaeró	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum,	to seek.
rudõ	rudere	rudīvī	rudītum,	to bray.
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī, sapuī		to taste.
sinō	sinere	sīvī	situm,	a permit.
terõ	terere	trīvī	trītum,	to rub.

279. Principal Parts in -5, ere, ī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs with ${\bf u}$ -stems. The following are examples:

acuō	acuere	acuī	acūtum,	to sharpen.
arguō	arguere	arguī	argūtum,	to convict.
imbuō	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtum,	to imbue.
minuõ	minuere	minuī	minūtum,	to diminish,
ruō	ruere	ruī	rutum,	to fall.
statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtum,	to place.
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtum,	to impart.
Note,-	Fluo and struo h	ave the Perfect in xī.		
Ano	Augra	A5 45 8	Asrum	to How

uuō	fluere	Hūxī s	Ħūxum,	to flow.
struō	struere	strūxī ³	strūctum,	to build.

INCEPTIVES.

280. Inceptives end in sco, and denote the beginning of an action.

NOTE.—When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

281. Most Verbal anceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives:

acesco	(aceō)	acescere	acuī	 to become sour.
ărēscō	(āreō)	ārēscere	ārui	 to become dry.
calesco	(caleo)	calēscere	caluī	 to become warm.
flöréscö	(floreō)	flörēscere	flōruī	 to begin to bloom.
tepēs c ō	(tepeo)	t epēscere	tepui	 to become warm.
virēscō	(vireo)	vir ēscere	viruī	 to become green.

Note.—The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

concupisco	(con, cupio)	ere	concupivi	concupītum,	to desire.
convalesco	(con, valeō)	ere	convaluī	convalitum,	to grow strong.
exărdêsc5	(ex. ardeō)	ere	exārsī	exarsum.	to burn.
inveterasco	(invetero)	ere	inveterāvi	inveterātum,	to grow old.
obdormisco	(ob. dormio)	ere	obdormivi	obdormītum.	to fall asleep.
revivisco	(re, vivo)	ere	revixi	revictum,	to revive.
scisco	(scio)	ere	scīvī	scītum.	to enact.

¹ So $ign\delta sc\bar{o}$; $\ddot{a}gn\delta sc\bar{o}$ and $c\delta gn\delta sc\bar{o}$ have itum in Supine, $\ddot{a}gnitum$; $d\bar{i}gn\delta sc\bar{o}$ and $intern\delta sc\bar{o}$ want Supine.

² Compounds thus: acquiro, ere, acquisivi, acquisitum.

³ For flug-sī, strug-sī, formed not from u-stems, but from consonant-stems.

282. Most DENOMINATIVE INCEPTIVES want both Perfect and Supine:

ditésco	(dives),	to grow rich.			to grow mild.
dulcesco		to become sweet.			to grow soft.
grandēscō	(grandis),	to grow large.	puerāscō	(puer),	to become a boy.

Note. - The following have the Perfect in ui:

crebresco	(crēber)	ere	crēbruī.	to become frequent
dűréscő	(dūrus)	ere	dürul,	to become hard.
innötěscő	(in, notus)	ere	innōtuī,	to become known.
macresco	(macer)	ere	macruī,	to become lean.
mātūrēscō	(mātūrus)	ere	mātūrui,	to ripen.
obmūtēscō	(ob, mūtus)	ere	obmūtui.	to grow dumb.
recrūdēscō	(re, crūdus)	ere	recrūduī.	to bleed afresh.
vīlēscō	(vīlis)	ere	vīluī,	to become worthless.

283. DEPONENT VERBS.

amplector apiscor comminiscor expergiscor fatiscor	ī ī ī ī ī ī	amplexus sum, aptus sum,¹ commentus sum,² experrēctus sum,	to embrace, to obtain. to devise. to awake. to gape.
fruor	ĭ	frūctus sum, į	to enjoy.
fungor gradior Irāscor lābor līquor loquor		fruitus sum, ffünctus sum, gressus sum, lapsus sum, locūtus sum,	to perform to walk. to be angry to fall, to melt, to speak,
morior	ī (īrī, rare)	mortuus sum, ⁸	to die.
nanciscor	ī	nactus (nanctus) sum,	to obtain.
näscor	Ī	nātus sum, ^s	to be born.
nitor	ĭ) nīsus sum,)) nīxus sum,)	to strive.
obliviscor	ī	oblitus sum,	to forget.
paciscor	ĭ	pactus sum,	to bargain.
patior	Ĩ	passus sum,	to suffer.
proficiscor	ĭ	profectus sum,	to set out.
queror reminiscor	ī ī	questus sum,	to complain. to remember.
ringor	ī	rictus sum,	to growl.
sequor	T	secūtus sum,	to follow.
ulcīscor	ĭ	ultus sum,	to avenge
fitor	ī	ūsus sum,	to use.
vescor	ĭ		to eat.
	Semi-Deponer	nt—Deponent in the Perfect.	
fīdo	fidere	fīsus sum,	to trust.

Adipiscor, i, adeptus sum; so indipiscor.

3 De-fetiscor, i, de-fessus sum.

4 Compounds thus: aggredior, 7, aggressus sum.

² Com-miniscor is compounded of con, and the obsolete miniscor; re-miniscor wants the Perfect.

[·] Morior has future participle moriturus; nascor, nasciturus.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

CLASS I .- STEM IN I: PERFECT IN VI.

284. Principal Parts in-iō, ire, ivī, itum.

The following are examples:

fīuiō	fīnīre	fīnīvī	fīnītum,	to finish.
lēniō	lēnīre	lēnīvī	lēnītum,	to alleviate.
mūniō	münīre	mūnīvī	mūnītum,	to fortify.
pūniō	pūnīre	pūnīvī	pūnītum,	to punish.
scið	scīre	scīvī	scītum,	to know.
sepeliō	sepelīre	sepelîvī	sepultum,1	to bury.
sitiō	sitīre	sitīvī		to thirst.
vāgiō	vägīre	vāgīvī		to cry.
				•

NOTE 1.—V is often dropped in the Perfect: audii for audivi; see 285, 1.

NOTE 2.—Desideratives (338, III.)—except èsurio, îre, ——, îtum; nūpturio, îre, īvi, and parturio, îre, īvi—want both Perfect and Supine. Also a few others:

caecūtio, ferio,	to stammer. to be blind. to strike.	ganniō, ineptiō,	to be perce. to bark. to trifte.	sagio, superbiō, tussiō,	to be wise. to be proud. to cough.	

CLASS II.—Stem in c, l, or r: Perfect in ui.

285. Principal Parts in-iō, īre, uī, tum.

amiciō	amicīre	amicuī (xī)	amictum,	to clothe.
aperio	aperīre	aperuī	apertum,	to open.
operio	operīre	operui	opertum,	to cover.
saliō	salīre	saluī (iī)	(saltum), ⁹	to leap.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I

286. Principal Parts in-io, ire, si, tum.

farciô	farcīre	farsî	{ fartum, 3 } farctum, {	to stuff.
fulciō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultum,	to prop.
hauriō ⁴	haurīre	hausī	haustum, hausum,	to draw.
saepiõ	saepīre	saepsī	saeptum,	to hedge in.
sanciō	sancīre	sanxī	sancītum,)	to ratify.
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartum,	to patch.
vinciõ	vincīre	vinxī	vinctum,	to bind.

¹ Supine irregular.

² Compounds thus: dėsilio, īre, ui (ii), (dėsultum).

³ Compounds thus: confercio, ire, confersi, confertum.

⁴ The stem of haurio is haus. The Present adds i and changes s to r between two vowels. In hausi and hausum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

to flatter.

287. Principal Parts in-io, ire, si, sum.

rauciō	raucīre	rausī	rausum,	to be hoarse.
sentiō	sentīre	sēns ī	sēnsum,	to feel.
Nоте.—Т	he following ver	bs have the Pe	rfeet in i :	
comperiō	comperire	comperi	compertum, repertum, ventum,	to learn.
reperiō	reperire	reperi		to find.
veniō	venire	vēnī ¹		to come.

288. Deponent Verbs.

blandior

1. Regular.

blandītus sum.

largior	Īrī	largītus sum,	to bestow.
mentior	īrī	mentītus sum,	to lie.
mōlior	ริ 17	mõlītus sum,	to strive.
partior	īrī	partītus sum,	to divide.
potior 2	īrī	potītus sum,	to obtain.
sortior	īrī	sortītus sum,	to draw lots,
		2. Irregular.	
assentior 3	īrī	assēnsus sum,	to assent.
experior	īrī	expertus sum,	to try.
métior	īrī	mēnsus sum,	to measure.
opperior	īrī	oppertus sum, opperitus sum,	to await.
ōrdior	īrī	drsus sum,	to begin.
orior	īrī	ortus sum,4	to rise.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

289. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum, $ed\bar{o}$, $fer\bar{o}$, $vol\bar{o}$, $f\bar{v}\bar{o}$, $e\bar{o}$, $que\bar{o}$, and their compounds.

290. Sum, 'I am,' and its compounds.

I. The conjugation of sum has been already given (201); its numerous compounds—absum, ⁵ adsum, dēsum, praesum, ⁵ etc.—except possum and prō-sum, are conjugated in the same way.

¹ With lengthened stem-vowel.

² In the Present Indicative and Subjunctive, forms of Conjugation III. occur.

³ Compounded of ad and sentio; see 287.

⁴ Participle, oritūrus.—Present Indicative, Conjugation III., oreris, oritur. Imperfect Subjunctive, orirer or orerer.—So compounds, but adorior follows Conjugation IV.

⁵ Absum and praesum, like possum, have Present Participles, absens and praesens, used as adjectives, absent, present.

II. Possum,

posse,

potui,

to be able.

SINGULAR.

INDICATIVE.

PLURAL.

Pres. possum, potes, potest;

possumus, potestis, possunt.

Imp. poteram;1

poterāmus. poterimus.

Fut. poterō; Perf. potui; Plup. potueram;

F. P. potuero;

potuimus. potuerāmus. potuerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. possim, possis, possit;

possīmus, possītis, possint.

Imp. possem; Perf. potuerim:

possēmus. potuerimus. potuissēmus.

Plup. potuissem;

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. posse.

Pres. potens (as an adjective).

Perf. potuisse.

Note 1 .- Possum is compounded of potis, 'able,' and sum, 'to be.' The parts are sometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: potis sum, potis sumus, etc.

Note 2.-In possum observe-2

1) That potis drops is, and that t is assimilated before s: possum for potsum.

2) That the Perfect is potuī not potfuī.2

3) That posse and possem are shortened forms for potesse and potessem.

III. Prosum, 'I profit,' is compounded of pro, prod, 'for,' and sum, 'to be.' It retains d when the simple verb begins with e: prosum, prodes, prodest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.

291. Edő.

edere,

ĕdī,

ēsum,

to eat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms similar, except in quantity,8 to those of sum which begin in es. Thus-

INDICATIVE.

Pres. \ edo,

edis, ēs.3

edit: edimus, ēst;

editis, ēstis.

edunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. { ederem, ederes, ederet; essem, esset.

ederēmus. ēssēmus,

ederētis, ēssētis,

ederent. ēssent.

¹ Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poterās, poterat, etc. So also in the other tenses: potui, potuisti. etc.

² For old and rare forms, see 204, 2. Potuī is probably a regular perfect in uī from an obsolete verb poteo or potio; see 262, 285; also Stolz, p. 225.

These forms have \hat{e} long before s, while the corresponding forms of sum have e short.

IMPERATIVE.

n	(ede;	edite.	
Pres.	{ ede ; { ēs ; ¹	ēste.	
E	edito;	editōte,	edunto.
rut.	ēstā.	ēstāte.	

INFINITIVE.

Pres. edere. ēsse. Note 1.—In the Passive, estur for editur and essetur for ederetur also occur.

Note 2.—Forms in im for am occur in the Present Subjunctive: edim, edis, edit, sta., for edam, edas, edat, etc.

Note 8.—Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comedo has in the Su pine comesum or comestum.

292. Fero. ferre, tuli, lātum, to bear.

ACTIVE V	DICE.
SINGULAR. INDICATIV	E. PLURAL.
Pres. fero, fers, fert;	ferimus, fertis, ferunt.
Imp. ferēbam; 3	ferēbāmus.
Fut. feram;	ferēmus.
Perf. tuli;	tulimus.
Plup, tuleram;	tulerāmus.
F. P. tulerō;	tulerimus.
Pres. feram; SUBJUNCTI	VE. ferāmus.
Imp. ferrem;	ferrēmus.
Perf. tulerim;	tulerimus.
Plup. tulissem;	tulissēmus.
IMPERATIVE	Æ
Pres. fer; 5	ferte.
Fut. fertő,	fertōte,
fertő;	feruntā.
Infinitive.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. ferre.4	Pres. ferens.

Perf. tulisse.

Fut. lātūrus esse. Fut. lātūrus.

¹ See page 136, foot-note 2.

² Fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, dispense with the usual thematic vowel i With such vowel the forms would be feris, ferit, feritis.

³ Inflect the several tenses in full: ferébam, ferèbas, etc.

^{*} Ferrem, etc., for fererem, etc.; ferre for ferere (e dropped).

⁵ Fer for fere: ferto. ferto, fertote, ferrie, fertur, without thematic vowel

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. ferendī, Dat. ferendō.

Acc. ferendum, Acc. lātum, Abl. ferendo. Abl. lātū.

PASSIVE VOICE.

teror, ferrī, lātus sum, to be borne.

SINGULAR. INDICATIVE,

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur; 1 ferimur, ferimini, feruntur

PLURAL.

 Imp. ferēbar;
 ferēbāmur.

 Fut. ferār;
 ferēmur.

 Perf. lātus sum;
 lātī sumus.

 Plup. lātus eram;
 lātī erāmus.

F. P. lātus erō; lātī erimus.

Pres. ferar;
Imp. ferrer;
Perf. lātus sim;
SUBJUNCTIVE. ferāmur.
ferrēmur.
lātī sīmus.

Perf. lātus sim; lātī sīmus.
Plup. lātus essem; lātī essēmus.

Pres. ferre: 1 IMPERATIVE. ferimini.

Fut. fertor, 1 _____ fertor; feruntor.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferrī.1

Perf. lātus esse. Perf. lātus.
Fut. lātum īrī. Ger. ferendus.

1. Fero has two principal irregularities:

1) Its forms are derived from three independent stems, seen in fero, $t\nu h_i$ latum.

2) It dispenses with the thematic vowel, e or i, before r, s, and t.

2. COMPOUNDS of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ab-	auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātum	
ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātum	
con-	confero	conferre	contulī	collātum	
dis-	differō	differre	distulī	dīlātum	
ex-	efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātum	
in-	īnferō	īnferre	intulī	illätum	
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtuli	oblātum	
8u b −	sufferō	sufferre	sustulī	sublātum	

Without thematic vowel.

māluerim

māluissem.

Note.—Sustuli and sublatum are not often used in the sense of suffero, to bear, but they supply the Perfect and Supine of tollo, to raise; see 271.

293. Volo. velle. volui. to be willing. Nolo. nölle, to be unwilling. nöluī, Mālō. mälle, māluī. to prefer. INDICATIVE. Pres. volo, nõlõ. mālō, vis, non vis, māvīs, vult: non vult; māvult: volumus, nolumus, mālumus, vultis, non vultis, māvultis, volunt. nölunt. mālunt. Imp. volěbam, nölēbam. mālēbam. Fut. volam. nölam. mālam Perf. voluī. māluī. nőluī. mālueram. Plup, volueram. nolueram. F. P. voluero. nőluerő. māluerō. Subjunctive. Pres. velim. nölim. mālim. Imp. vellem.9 nöllem. māllem.

nöluissem. Imperative.

nöluerim.

Pres. nolī, nolīte.
Fut. nolīto, nolītote, nolīto; nolunto.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. velle. nõlle. mälle.
Perf. voluisse. nõluisse. mäluisse.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. volēns. | nôlēns.

Perf. voluerim.

Plup. voluissem.

Note 1.—The stem of volo is vol, with variable stem-vowel, o, e, u.

Note 2.—Nolo is compounded of ne or non and volo; Malo, of maginal volo.

NOTE 3.—RARE FORMS.—(1) Of volo: volt, voltis, for vult, vultis; sis, valtis, for si vis, si vultis; vin' for visne.—(2) Of Nolo: nevis, nevult (nevolt),

1 Velim is inflected like sim, and vellem like essem.

Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velerem, velere; e is dropped and r assimilated: velerem, velrem, vellem; velere, velle, so nöllem and nölle, for nölerem and nöllere; müllem and mälle, for mälerem and mülere.

nëvelle, for non (në) vis, non (në) vult, nolle.—(3) Of $m\overline{a}L\overline{o}$: mavolo, mavelim, mavellem, for malo, mallem, mallem.

294	Fīō,	fierī,	factus sun	n, to	become, be made.
	g	INGULAR.	INDICATIVE).	PLURAL.
		fīō, fīs, fit;		fim	us, fītis, fīunt.
		fīēbam;			as, mus, munt.
	-	fiam;			nus.
		factus sum;			tī sumus,
		factus eram;			tī erāmus.
		factus erō;			i erimus.
	Dun	fram .	SUBJUNCTIV	E. 555	
		fiam;			nus.
		fierem;			ēmus. tī sīmus.
		factus sim; factus essem;			ī essēmus.
	z vap.	140040 0000111			a debuildabi
	Pres.	fī;	IMPERATIVI	E. fīte.	. \
	In	FINITIVE.		Par'	TICIPLE.
	Pres.	fierī.			
	Perf.	factus esse.		Perf. fact	us.
	Fut.	factum īrī.		Ger. faci	endus.
295.	Eō,	īre,	īvī,	itum,	to go.
	D	08 E0 14.	INDICATIVE		
		eŏ, īs, it;			s, Itis, eunt.
	Imp. Fut.	ībam;		ībār ībin	
	Perf.			īvin	
		īveram ;			āmus.
	-	īverām ;			amus. ĭmus.
		•	Crip maromer		
	Pres.	eam;	Subjunctiv	E. eām	us.
		īrem ;		îrên	nus.
	Perf.	Iverim;		īver	ĭmus.
	Plup.	īvissem ;		īviss	sēmus.
	Duca	٠.	IMPERATIVE].	
	Pres. Fut.	•		Ite.	•
		ītō;		ītōte eunt	*
		1601		eum	U.

¹ COMPOUNDS of fro are conjugated like the simple verb, but confit, defit, and infit are defective; see 297, III., 2.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. Pres. Ire. Pres. iëns. Gen. euntis. Perf. Ivisse. Fut. itūrus esse. Fut. itūrus. GERUND. SUPINE. Gen. eundī. Dat. eundō,

Acc. eundrim,

Acc. itum, Abl. eundō. Abl. itū.

1. Eo is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine with a short vowel (itum), and is irregular in several parts of the Present System. It admits contraction according to 235: istis for ivistis, etc.

2. E5, as an intransitive verb, wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular, itur, ibātur, etc. (301, 1), but irī, the Passlve Infinitive, occurs as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugations: amātum īrī, etc.

8. Compounds of eð generally shorten īvī into iī. Vēneō (vēnum eð) has sometimes vēniēbam for vēnībam. Many compounds want the Supine, and a few admit in the Future a rare form in eam, ies, iet.

Note 1 .- Transitive compounds have the Passive: adeo, to approach; adeor, etc.

Note 2.—Ambiō is regular, like audiō, though ambībam for ambiēbam occurs,

296. Queō, quīre, quīvī, quitum, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī (ii), nequitum, to be unable, are conjugated like eo, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare except in the Present tense.1

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts. The following are the most important:2

I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.

Coepi, I have begun.	Meminī, I remember.	Ödi, I hate.
	INDICATIVE.	
Perf. coepi.	meminī.	ōdī.
Plup. coeperam.	memineram.	öderam.
F. P. coeperô	meminero.	ōderō.
	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Perf. coeperim.	meminerim.	oderim.
Plup. coepissem.	meminissem.	ōdissem.
	IMPERATIVE.	
1	Sing. memento.	
	Plur. mementôte.	

¹ A Passive form, quitur, nequitur, etc., occurs before a Passive Infinitive.

² For many verbs which want the Perfect or Supine, or both, see 262-284.

		I	NFINITIVE.			
Perf.	coepisse.	1 1	meminisse.	1	ōdisse.	
Fut.	coepturus esse.				ōsūrus e	886.
		P	ARTICIPLE			
Perf.	coeptus.	1			ōsus.1	
Fut.	coeptūrus.				ōsūrus.	
eram, e 2. A they ha learn,'	Vith Passive Infine etc. Coeptus is Pass Memini and ōdī are I we the sense of the In and consuevi, 'I am in sense.	ive in sens Present in mperfect a	se. sense; hence and Future.	in the Pluperfe Võvī, 'I know,	ct and Fut ' Perfect o	ure Perfec f nôsco, 't
			ACH SYS	TEM WAN	ring.	
	Aio, I say, say y					
Indic.	Pres. āio,	ais,3	ait;			
	Imp. āiēbam,			-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ëbant.
	Perf. ——					
		āiās,	ăiat;			āiant.
	Pres. al (rare). Pres. aiens.					
	Inquam, I say.					
	Pres. inquam,	inquis	inquit.	inquimus	inquitis,	inquiunt
1100000	Imp. ——		inquiebat;			
			inquit;			
Imper.	Pres. inque. Fut	. inquitō				
3.	Fārī, to speak.					
Indic.	Pres		fātur;			
	Fut. fabor,		fābitur;			
	Perf. fatus sum,	es,	est;	fātī sumus,	estis,	sunt.
	Plup. fātus eram,	erās,	erat;	fātī erāmus,	erātis,	erant.
Subj.	Perf. fātus sim,	sis,	sit;	fāti simus,	sītis,	sint.
	Plup. fātus essem,	essēs,	esset;	fāti essēmus,	essētis,	essent.
-	Pres. făre.					
Infin.	Pres. farī.					

Perf. fātus.

Supine, Abl. fatu.

Ger. fandus.

Part. Pres. (fans) fantis.

Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fandi, do.

¹ Osus is Active in sense, hating, but is rare except in compounds: exòsus, peròsus.

³ In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the i has the sound of $y: \bar{a} \cdot y\bar{c}$, $\bar{a} \cdot yunt$; see 10, 4, 3).

³ The interrogative form aisne is often shortened into ain'.

⁴ Aībam, aībās, etc., occur; also inquībat for inquiēbat.

⁵ Fārī is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple: adjāmur, adjāminī, adjābar; effāberis.

III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

1.	IMPERATI	VES.			
	havě, salvě, cedě, apage,	havēte; salvēte, cette,	havētō; salvētō;²	Inf. havēre,¹ salvēre,	hail. hail. tell me begone.

2. ISOLATED FORMS.

Indicativ	E.	Subju	NCTIVE.		
Present.	FUTURE.	Present.	IMPERFECT.	Infinitive	to be done.
defit, defiunt; infit, infiunt,		dēfīat;			to be wanting to begin.
	forem, for		— — fore	•	fore. ³

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it behooves. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

299. The most important Impersonal Verbs are-

Ind. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus, I pray.

	decuit, libuit,	it becomes.	piget,	piguit, pigitum est, it grieves.
liest	libitum est, { licuit, { licitum est, }	it is lawful.		paenituit, it causes regret.
liquet,	licuit, miseritum est,	it is evident.	pudet,	puduit, puditum est. it shames.
	oportuit,	it behooves.	taedet,	taesum est, it wearies.

- 1. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense: (1) from Liber: libers, willing; (2) from Licer: libers, free; libits, silowed; (3) from parameter: paenitens, penitent; paenitendus, to be repented of; (4) from puber: pudens, modest; pudendus, shameful.
- 2. Genunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: pasnitendum, pudendo.
 - 1 Also written avě, avěte, etc.
 - ² The Future salvėbis is also used for the Imperative.
 - * Forem = essem; fore = futurum esse; see 204, 2.
 - 4 Oid forms for quaero and quaerimus.
- 5 The subject is generally an infinitive or clause, but may be a noun or pronoun denoting a thing, but not a person: hoc fiert opertet, that this should be done is necessary
 - 5 These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject.
 - 7 Mê miseret, I pity; me paenitet, I repent.
 - ⁹ Also the compound, pertaedet, pertaenum est, it greatly wearies.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of the weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulminat, it lightens; grandinat, it hails; lūcēscit, it grows light; pluit, it rains; rōrat, dew falls; tonat, it thunders.

301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally:

Accidit, it happens; apparet, it appears; constat, it is evident; contingit, it happens; delectat, it delights; dolet, it grieves; interest, it concerns; juvat, it delights; patet, it is plain; placet, it pleases; praestat, it is better; refert, it concerns.

1. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Miht créditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibi créditur, you are believed; créditum est, it was believed; certâtur, it is contended; curritur, there is running, peo ple run; pûgnâtur, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; vīvitur, we, you, they live.

2. The Passive Peripheastic Conjugation (234) is often used impersonally. The

participle is then neuter:

Mihi ecribendum est, I must write; tibi ecribendum est, you must write; illi ecribendum est, he must write.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS.

- 303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.
- 304. In their origin, Adverbs are mainly the oblique cases of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
 - I. Accusatives.—Many Adverbs were originally Accusatives:
- Accusatives of Nouns: partim, partly; forās,¹ out of doors; diū¹ (for dium²), for a long time. Here belong numerous adverbs in tim and sim, chiefly from verbal nouns² no longer in use:¹ contemptim, contemptuously;

² Accusative of $dius = di\bar{e}s$.

¹ Some, indeed, are the oblique cases of words not otherwise used in Latin, and some we formed by means of case-endings no longer used in the regular declensions.

³ Some adverbs in tim and sim are from adjectives: singulātim, one by one. In time doubtless tim, ātim, sim, and im came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were so used in forming new adverbs.

sensim, perceptibly, slowly; raptim, hastily; statim, steadily; furtim, by stealth.

- 2. Accusatives of Nouns with Prepositions: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; in-vicem, in turn; in-cassum, in vain; ob-iter, on the road, in passing; ob-viam, in the way, against; post-modum, after a short time; inter-diù and inter-dius, during the day; inter-dum, during the time, in the mean time.
 - 3. Accusatives of Adjectives:
- 1) NEUTERS in um, a, e, us, is: sōlum, only; multum, multa, much; nimium, too much; parum, little; secundum, secondly; oēterum, cetera, as to the
 rest; vērum, truly; abunde, abundantly; fucile, easily; saepe, often; plūs,
 more; minus, less; saepius, more frequently; mayis, more, rather.
- 2) Feminines in am, ās: bifāriam, in two parts; multifāriam, in many parts; clam = calam, secretly; palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; aliās, otherwise.
- 4. Accusatives of Pronouns: quam, how much; tam, so much; tum, then; tun-c, at that time; nun-c, now.
 - II. ABLATIVES .- Many Adverbs were originally Ablatives:
- 1. Ablatives of Nouss in ō, e, īs: ergō, accordingly; s numerō, exactly; forte, by chance; jūre, rightly; sponte, willingly; grātiīs, or grātīs, gratuitously; forīs, out of doors.

Note.—The ablative is sometimes accompanied by a preposition or by an adjective: $ex\text{-}templ\tilde{o}$, immediately—lit., from the moment; $\tilde{t}lico$ for $in\ loc\tilde{o}$, on the spot; $quotann\tilde{s}s$, yearly; $mulli-mod\tilde{s}s$, in many ways; $ho\text{-}di\tilde{e}$ ($h\tilde{o}c\text{-}di\tilde{e}$), to-day; $qu\tilde{a}\text{-}r\tilde{e}$, wherefore, by which thing.

- 2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles in \tilde{a} , Feminine, δ , $\tilde{\epsilon}$, θ and \tilde{t} , Neuter: $dextr\tilde{a}^{10} = dexter\tilde{a}$, on the right; $extr\tilde{a}^{11}$ on the outside; $infr\tilde{a}$, $infr\tilde{a}$ on the under side; $intr\tilde{a}$, on the inside;— $intr\tilde{o}$, within; $iltr\tilde{o}$, beyond; $perpetu\tilde{o}$, continually; $r\tilde{a}r\tilde{o}$, rarely; $subit\tilde{o}$, suddenly; $auspic\tilde{a}t\tilde{o}$, after taking the aus-
- ¹ $Dt\bar{u}$ and dum are explained as forms of dium = diem, and dius as for $di\bar{e}s$; see Corssen, I., pp. 232–236; II., 458.
- 2 Often becoming conjunctions—cêterum, but. Nõn, from ne-ūnum, also belongs here.
 - 3 From obsolete abundis.
 - 4 Here may be added semel, 'onee,' and simul, 'at the same time,' both for simile.
 - 5 Secus, 'otherwise'; tenus, 'as far as'; prūtinus, 'straightforward'; and versus. toward,' doubtless belong here.
 - 6 Originally partem or viam may have been used.
- 7 Quam, from stem qua, in qui, quae; tam, tum, from stem ta, to, in the final sylable of iste, for is-tu-s, is-ta; tun-c=tum-ce, nun-c=num-ce, in which num is from the stem no, seen also in num, 'whether,' and also in its original form, na, in nam, 'for.'
 - 8 Literally, by the deed. Compare Greek έργον, έργω.
- ⁹ That \tilde{e} is here an ablative ending is proved by the fact that it appears in early Latin in the form of $\tilde{e}d$, an undoubted ablative ending.
 - 19 With these feminines, parte or viā may have been originally used.
- ¹¹ Often becoming prepositions. In fact, all prepositions in \hat{a} are derived from adverbablich were originally ablatives in $\hat{a}d$, afterward \hat{a} .

pices; cōnsultō, after deliberating; sortītō, by lot, i. e., after casting lots;—doctē, learnedly; līberē, freely; certē,¹ surely; rēctē, rightly; vērē, truly;—doctissimē, most skillfully; māximē,² especially;—brevī, briefly.

3. ABLATIVES OF PRONOUNS: $\epsilon \bar{a}$, there, in that way; $h\bar{a}c$, here, in this way; $qu\bar{a}$, where, in which way; $\epsilon \bar{a}dem$, by the same road, in the same way.

Note.—Several pronominal adverbs denote direction toward a point: $e\bar{o}$, to that place; $h\bar{o}c$, $h\bar{u}c$, to this place, \bar{s} $ill\bar{o}$, $ill\bar{o}$ -c, $ill\bar{u}$ -c, to that place; $ist\bar{o}$, $ist\bar{o}$ -c, $ist\bar{u}$ -c, to the place where you are; $qu\bar{o}$, to which place.

III. LOCATIVES .- Some Adverbs were originally Locatives:

- 1. LOCATIVES OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES in i or è: heri, yesterday; temperi, in time; vesperi, in the evening; peregri, or peregri, in a foreign land.
- 2. LOGATIVES OF PRONOUNS: hīc,4 here; illīc,4 there; istīc, there where you are; sīc, in this way, thus; utī,4 ut, in which way; ibī,4 there; ubī, where.

Note.—Locative forms in *im* also occur: $\bar{o}lim$, formerly; utrim-que, on both sides; illim, illin-c, from that place; hin-c, from this place; often with $d\bar{e}: utrin$ -de, from both sides; in-de, from that point, thence.

IV. Adverss in tus and ter.—Adverss are also formed by means of the endings tus 7 and ter: 7

Fundi-tus, from the foundation; $r\bar{a}d\bar{i}ci$ -tus, from the roots, utterly; $d\bar{i}r\bar{i}ni$ -tus, by divine appointment, divinely; forti-ter, bravely; $\bar{a}cri$ -ter, sharply; $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter, harshly; $\bar{e}legan$ -ter, elegantly; aman-ter, lovingly; $pr\bar{u}den$ -ter, prudently.

Note 1.—The stem-vowel before tus becomes i, and consonant stems assume i: fundi-tus, s $r\bar{a}d\bar{i}c$ -i-tus. The stem-vowel before ter also becomes i: $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter.s Consonant stems, however, do not assume i, but drop final t: amant-ter, aman-ter.

Note 2.—Many adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose parts have become united in writing. In these compound forms prepositions

¹ As \tilde{e} is an ablative ending, $cert\tilde{o}$ and $cert\tilde{e}$ are only different forms of the same word; so also $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{o}$ and $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{e}$, $r\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$ and $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, though the two forms do not always have precisely the same meaning: $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$, in truth; $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, truly.

² This is the regular ending in superlatives.

³ These are sometimes explained as *Datives*, but they are probably *Ablatives*; illö, lit., by that way or road, finally came to mean to that place, i. e., to the place to which the road leads.

⁴ Here the Locative ending is \(\bar{i}: h\bar{i}, iU\bar{i}, ist\bar{i}, s\bar{i}'\); c for \(ce\) is a demonstrative ending, meaning \(here.\) Sic is the Locative of \(sa\); see 313, foot-note.

⁵ Uti contains two stems—u or cu (seen in cui), and ta or to (seen in te in is-te).

[•] In ibi and ubi the ending is bi; i in ibi is the stem of is, he; u in ubi is the same as in uti.

⁷ Seen also in *in-ter*, in the midst; *in-tus*, within; *sub-ter* and *sub-tus*, below. These suffixes are of uncertain origin; the former appears to be a case-suffix with ablative meaning, no longer used in declension; the latter, like *ter* in *al-ter*, *nos-ter*, and *dex-ter*, has lost its case-suffix, and may therefore represent either *ter* on with an ablative suffix, or *terum* with an accusative suffix. See Corssen, II., p. 299; Kühner, I., p. 679.

⁸ The stem-vowel o is changed to i.

are especially common, and sometimes seem to be used with cases with which they do not otherwise occur: $ant-e\bar{a}$, before, before that; $inter-e\bar{a}$, in the mean time; $post-e\bar{a}$, after; $ante-h\bar{a}c$, before this; quem-ad-modum, in what manner; parum-per, for a while; $n\bar{u}-per=novum-per$, lately; $tant\bar{v}-per$, for so long a time; $vid\bar{v}$ evidented bicet, clearly—lit., it is permitted to see'; scilicet = scire bicet, certainly; forsitan = fors sit an, perhaps.

305. Many Pronominal Adverbs, like the pronouns from which they are formed (191), are correlatives of each other, as will be seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

INTERROGATIVE.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
INTERBOGATIVE.	INDEFINITE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	INCLATIVE.
	I. PLACE II	N WHICH.	
ubi, where ?2	alicubi, somewhere; uspiam, usquam, any- where; ubivīs, where you please.	hīc, here; s istīc, there; illīc, there; ibī, there.	ubi, where.
	II. Place	ro which.	
<i>quō</i> , whither ₹	aliquō, to some place; quōlibet, quōvīs, whither you please.	hūc, to this place; sistūc, to that place; illūc, to that place; eō, to that place; eōdem, to the same place.	$quar{o},$ whither.
quōrsum,4 to what place? to what end?	aliquō-vorsum,4 to some place.	hõrsum,4 to this place.	$qu\bar{o}rsum$, to which place or end.
	III. PLACE F	ROM WHICH.	
unde, whence?	alicunde, from some place; undelibet, from any place.	,	

¹ Some scholars, regarding ea and hac in these and similar cases as ablatives, think that all such compounds had their origin at a time when ante, post, inter, etc., admitted that case; but Corssen treats ea and hac in all such cases as neuters in the accusative plural. See Corssen, II., p. 455; Bücheler, p. 32.

² Observe that the question ubi, 'where?' may be answered indefinitely by alicubi, uspiam, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative either alone or with a relative: hic, 'here'; hic, ubi, 'here, where.'

³ Hic, 'here,' 'near me'; istic, 'there,' 'near you'; illie, 'there,' 'near him'; ibi, 'there,' a weak demonstrative and the most common correlative of ubi, 'where.' See distinction in pronouns (191). A similar distinction exists in hūc, istūc, illūc, and eō.

^{*} For quo-vorsum = quo-versum, 'whither turned'; aliquo-vorsum, hac-vorsum.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES .- (Continued.)

Interrogative.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	IV. T	IME.	
quandō, when? quotièns, how often?	quando, aliquando, unquam, at any time. aliquotièns, somewhat often.	nunc, now; tum, then; tunc, at that very time; ibi, then. totiens, so often.	quom, cum, quum, when. quotiens, as, as often.
	V. WAY, MAN	NER, DEGREE.	
quā, by or in what way?	aliquā, by or in some way; quāvīs, by any way.	$h\bar{a}c$, by this way; $ist\bar{a}c$, by that way; $ilt\bar{a}c$, by that way; $e\bar{a}$, by that way; $e\bar{a}$ - dem , by the same way.	way.
ut, uti, how?	aliquā, in some way, etc.	ita, sīc, so, thus.	ut, utī, ir whichway, as.
quam, how much? aliquam, somewhat.		tam, so much.	quam, as.

Note 1.—From Relative Adverbs are formed General or Indefinite Relatives by appending -cumque or by reduplicating the form: ublicumque, ubiubl, wheresoever; quocumque, quoquo, whithersoever.

Note 2.-Other examples are-

- 1) Place: —alibī, elsewhere; ibīdem, in the same place; necubi, lest anywhere, that nowhere; sīcubi, if anywhere; aliō, to another place; citrō, to this side; nīltrō citrōque, to and fro; utrōque, to both places; aliunde, from another place; indidem, from the same place; utrimque, from or on both sides; undique, from all sides.
- 2) Time:—hodiē, to-day; herī, yesterday; crūs, to-morrow; prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; jam, already; jam tum, even then; jamdiū, jamdūdum, jamprīdem, long ago; quondam, at a certain time; ōlim, formerly, hereafter; interim, intered, meanwhile; anted, prius, before; post, posted, afterward; unquam, ever; nūnquam, never; semper, at all times.
- 3) WAY, MANNER, DEGREE:—adeō, so; aliter, otherwise; magis, more; paene, almost; palam, openly; prōrsus, wholly; rīte, rightly; valdē, greatly; vīx, scarcely.
- 4) Cause:— $c\bar{u}r$, why; $e\bar{o}$, for this reason; $ide\bar{o}$, $ideirc\bar{o}$, $proptere\bar{d}$, on this account; $erg\bar{o}$, igitur, itaque, therefore, accordingly.

Note 3.—Nesci δ , with an interrogative adverb, is often equivalent to an indefinite adverb: nesci δ quémodo, I know not in what way = quodammodo, in some way; nesci δ ub δ = alicub δ , in some place; nesci δ unde=alicunde, from some place; see also 191, note.

Note 4.—Adverblal phrases are formed by combining mīrum or nimium with quantum: mīrum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, wonderfully nimium quantum, exceedingly. Mīrum quam, sānē quam, and valdē quam have similar force: how wonderfully, how very, how greatly = exceedingly, wonderfully.

NOTE 5.-For Interrogative Particles, see 311, 8.

NOTE 6 .- For NEGATIVE PARTICLES, see 552.

306. Comparison.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into δ :

altus,	altior,	altissimus,	lofty.
altē,	altius,	altissimē, ´	loftily.
prūdēns,	prūdentior,	prūdentissimus,	prudent.
prūdenter,	prūdentius,	prūdentissimē,	prudently.

 When the adjective is compared with magis and māximē, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius,	magis ēgregius,	māximē ēgregius,	excellent.
ēgregiē,	magis ēgregiē,	māximē ēgregiē,	excellently.

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good.
bene,	melius,	optimē,	well.
male,	pējus,	pessimē,	badly.

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	dēterior,	dēterrimus,	worse.
	dēterius,	dēterrimē,	worse.
novus,		novissimus,	new.
novē,		novissimē,	newly.

4. A few not derived from adjectives are compared:

diū,	diūtius,	diūtissimē,	for a long time.
saepe,	saepius,	saepissimē,	often.
satis,	satius,		sufficiently.
nüper,		nūperrimē,	recently.

- 5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hīc, here; nunc, now; vulgāriter, commonly.
- Superlatives in ō or um are used in a few adverbs: prīmō, prīmum, potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS.

307. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other:

In Italia esse, to be in Italy ; ante me, before me.

Note 1.—Prepositions were originally adverbs, and, like other adverbs (304), are in origin petrified case-forms.

¹ See 304, IL, 2.

² Thus prepositions in \tilde{a} are in origin ablatives: $circ\tilde{a}$, $citr\tilde{a}$, $contr\tilde{a}$, $erg\tilde{a}$, $extr\tilde{a}$, $infr\tilde{a}$, etc: while those in m are accusatives: circum, circum, cum, etc. These case-forms passed into adverbs denoting direction, situation, etc.; but they finally became associated with nouns in the accusative or ablative as auxiliary to the case-ending: $lor\tilde{a}$

NOTE 2 .- For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-437.

Note 3 .- For the Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

308. INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS. 1—Ambi, amb, 'around,' about'; dis, dī, 'asunder'; in, 'not,' 'un-'; por, 'toward,' 'forth'; re, red, 'back'; sē, sēd, 'aside,' 'apart'; and vē, 'not,' are called Inseparable Prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

NOTE.—For the FORM and MEANING of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see 344.6.

CONJUNCTIONS.

- 309. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Co-ordinate or Subordinate.
 - 1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptāsque, labor and pleasure. Karthāginem cēpit āc 2 dīruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Haec DUM 2 colligunt, effugit, WHILE they collect these things, he escapes.

- 310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise—
- 1. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting UNION:

Et, que, atque, a āc, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque —neque, nec-nec, neque-nec, neither-nor.

2. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting SEPARATION:

Aut, vel, ve, sive (seu), or; aut—aut, vel—vel, either—or; sive—sive, either—or.

Note.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum, num, or ne—an, whether—or; an, or; annon, necne, or not; see 353.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

= From a place; ex loco = out or a place; aliquid loco morere, to move anything from a place; aliquid ex loco movere, to move anything out or a place. An adverb thus separated from the verb and brought into connection with a nonn ceased to be ar adverb and became a preposition.

¹ Like other prepositions, these were doubtless originally case-forms.

² Thus que connects two nominatives, ac two indicatives which are entirely coordinate, took and destroyed, but dum connects the subordinate clause, huec—colliquat with the principal clause, effugit—he escapes where they collect these things.

³ Copulative conjunctions are $et = \text{Greek } \dot{e}\tau$, $que = \kappa a\iota$, and their compounds—et-iam or et-jam, at-que, quo-que, ne-que. $\bar{A}c$ is a shortened form of at-que; nec, of ne-que.

4 Disjunctives are aut, vel, vel, with their compounds: vel = relie, 'should you wish,' offering a choice, ve = vis, 'you wish,' as in qui-vis, 'any you please'; eive = siviz, 'if you wish.'

Sed, autem, vērum, vērō, but; at, but, on the contrary; atqui, rather; ceterum, but still, moreover; tamen, yet.

4. ILLATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting INFERENCE:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore; see also 554, IV., 2.

5. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.3

311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise—

1. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting TIME:

Quandō, quom, cum, or quum, when; ut, ubǐ, as, when; cum (quom or quum) prīmum, ut prīmum, ubǐ prīmum, simul, simulāc, simul āc, simul atque, simul atque, as soon as; dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, while, until, as long as; antequam, priusquam, before; posteāquam, after.

- 2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting comparison:
- Ut, uti, sīcut, sīcuti, as, so as; velut, just as; praeut, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as; tanquam, quasi, ut sī, āc sī, velut sī, as if.
 - 3. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting condition:
- Sī, s if; sī nōn, nisi, nī, if not; sīn, but if; sī quidem, if indeed; sī modo, dum modo, dummodo, if only, provided.
 - 4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quanquan, licet, cum (quom, or quum), although; etsī, tametsī, etiamsī, even if; quumvīs, quantumvīs, quantumlibet, however much, although; ut, grant that; nē, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, uti, that, in order that; $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}ve$ (neu), that not; $qu\bar{o}$, that; $qu\bar{o}minus$, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence or result:

Ut, so that; ut non, quin, so that not.

- ¹ Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case-forms, chiefly from pronominal stems. Thus, sed, vêrô, ergô, etc., are explained as ablatives (sed from sui); autem, verum, cēterum, quam, quod, quom, or cum, etc., as accusatives; que, ubi, uti, ut, etc., as locatives.
 - 2 Lit., as to the rest.
 - ³ But most Causal Conjunctions are subordinate; see 311, 7.
- 4 Quom, the original form out of which cum and quum were developed (22; 26, foot-note), occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.
 - ⁵ See 304, I., 1 and 2, foot-notes.
 - 6 Probably locative, possibly instrumental; see page 73, foot-note 2.
- Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; vis, in quam-ris and quantum-ris, is also a verb; quam-ris, 'as much as you wish'; as is also libet, 'it pleases,' in quantum-libet, 'as much as is pleasing.'
 - ⁸ Quōminus = quō minus, 'by which less'; $qu\bar{i}n = qu\bar{i} n\bar{e}$, 'by which not.'

7. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Quia, quod, quoniam, quando, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom, quum), since; quandoquidem, siquidem, utpote, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry:3

Ne, nonne, num, utrum, an, whether; an non, necne, or not.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address. They may express—
 - 1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, atat, bubae, vāh, ēn, ecce.
 - 2. Joy . io, evoe, euge, eja, o, papae.
 - 3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, eheu, ohe, ah, au, pro.
 - Disgust: aha, phỹ, apage.
 Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
 Praise: eu, euge, ēja, hēja.

CHAPTER VI.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

SECTION I.

ROOTS.-STEMS.-SUFFIXES.

313. Words are formed from stems (16, 1), and stems from roofs or from other stems.

Note 1.—Thus status, 'position,' is formed from the stem statu by adding the nominative suffix s, but the stem statu is itself formed from the root sta by appending the derivative suffix tu.

¹ Compounded of quom-jam, when now.

² Lit., if indeed.

³ These are sometimes classed as *Adverbs*. In some of their uses they are plainly *Conjunctions*, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of *Adverbs*. As a matter of convenience they may be called *Interrogative Particles*: see 351, 1.

⁴ Some Interjections seem to be the simple and natural atterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as age, 'come,' $apage = \tilde{a}\pi\alpha\gamma\epsilon$, 'begone,' or mutilated sentences or clauses: $mehercul\tilde{e}s$, $mehercul\tilde{e}s$, 'may the true God belp me'; $\tilde{e}cast\tilde{e}r$, 'and Castor,' lo Castor.'

⁶ This s is doubtiess a remnant of an old demonstrative, sa, meaning that, he, she.

NOTE 2. - Words are either simple or compound:

- 1. Simple, when formed from single roots with or without suffixes.
- 2. Compound, when formed by the union of two or more roots or stems; see 340, III.
- 314. Roots.—Roots are the primitive elements out of which all words in our family of languages have been formed. They are of two kinds:
- I. PREDICATIVE ROOTS, also called VERBAL ROOTS.² These designate or pame objects, actions, or qualities: es in es-t, he is; i in \bar{i} -re, to go; duc in tuc-s = dux, leader; doc in doc-ilis, docile.
- II. DEMONSTRATIVE ROOTS,³ also called Pronominal Roots. These do not name objects or actions, but simply point out the relation of such objects or actions to the speaker: me in mei, of me; tu in tui, of you; i in is, that, that one, he.
- 315. The Stems of simple words may be divided into three classes: Root Stems, Primary Stems, and Secondary Stems.
- 316. Root Stems are either identical with roots, or are formed from them without the aid of suffixes:

Duc-is, 'of a leader,' root-stem duc; 's es-tis, 'you are,' root-stem es; reg-es, kings,' root-stem rēg; vōc-is, 'of the voice,' root-stem vōc; murmur-is, 'of a murmur,' root-stem murmur.

317. PRIMARY STEMS are formed from roots by means of suffixes:

¹ These roots were probably all monosyllable, and were once used separately as words, but not as parts of speech. Thus es, the root of sim, esse, 'to be,' and i, the root of $e\tilde{c}$, ire, 'to go,' were doubtless used in their original form as significant words, long before the verbs themselves had an existence.

² Observe that from this class of roots, whether called *Predicative* or *Verbal*, may be formed the stems, not only of verbs, but also of nouns, adjectives, and, in fact of all the parts of speech except pronouns.

³ The learner should note the difference in signification between *Predicative* and *Demonstrative* Roots. Thus dux has a definite meaning, and must always designate one who leads; while the pronoun eyo is not the name of any person or thing, but may be used by any and every person in speaking of himself.

⁴ The learner has already become familiar with the use of stems in the inflection of nouns, adjectives, etc.; but stems, like roots, were probably once used as words.

⁶ The basis of every inflected word is a stem. Duc is therefore the stem of duc-is, but as it can not be derived from a more primitive form, it is also a root. According to some authorities, $r \dot{e} y$, the stem of $r \dot{e} v - \dot{e} s$, and $v \dot{e} c$, the stem of $r \dot{e} v - \dot{e} s$, are not roots, but derived from more primitive forms—r e p in $r e p - \dot{o}$, and $v \dot{e} c$ in $v e c - \dot{o}$; according to other authorities, however, r e p and $r \dot{e} y$ are only two forms of the same root; so also v c c and $v \dot{e} c$, duc and $d \dot{u} c$. The stem u u r m u r is not a root, but formed from the root $u u r \dot{e} b c$ is duplication. See Curtius, Chron., p. 25; Schleicher, pp. 341–350; Meyer, pp. 3311–376.

⁴ Any suffix used to form a Primary Stem is called a Primary Suffix; see 326.

ROOT.	SUFFIX.	STEM.	Word.	
ar,	vo,	ar-vo,	ar-vu-m,1	field.
fac,	to,	fac-to,	fac-tu-s, 1	made.
sta,	tu,	sta-tu,	sta-tu-s,	position.

Note .. - All stems formed from verb-stems are also generally classed as Primary Stems: 2 cūrā-tor, 'guardian,' 'curator,' from cūrō, 'to care for,' from cūra, 'care.'

318. Secondary Stems are formed from other stems by means of suffixes:4

STEM.	Suffix.	SECONDARY STEM.	Word.	
cīvi,5	co;	cīvi-co,	cīvicus,	civic.
vīctōr,5	iă;	vīctōr-iā,	vīctōria,	victory.
victör,	īc;	vīctōr-ic,	vietrix,6	victress.

319. The Stems of Compound Words are formed by the union of two or more stems, or of a stem with a root:

fu-erā, ^q	fu-erā-s,	you had been.
grand-aevo,8	grand-aevn-s,	of great age.
īgni-colōr,9	īgni-color,	fire-colored.
māgn-animo, 10	māgn-animu-s,	great-souled.

Note 1 .- Words are formed from Stems by means of the Suffixes of Inflection; see 46 and 202, note 1.

Note 2.— A single root often gives rise to a large class of forms. Thus, from the root sta, 'to stand,' are derived -

1. The numerous forms which make up the conjugation of the verb sto, stare, steti. stătum, to stand.

2. All the forms of the verb sistō, sistere, stitī, statum, 'to place.'

3. Numerous other forms. Thus (1), sta-bilis, 'stable,' 'firm,' from which are derived stabilio, 'to make firm'; stabilitas, 'firmness,' and stabiliter, 'firmly'; (2) stabulum, 'a standing place,' 'stable,' from which are derived stabulo, and stabulor, 'to have a standing place'; (3) stamen, 'something standing,' 'warp in an upright loom'; (4) statim, 'in standing,' 'at once'; (5) statio, 'standing'; (6) statīvus, 'stationary'; (7) stator, 'a stayer'; and (8) status, 'position,' from which is derived statuo, 'to place,' which in turn becomes the basis of statua, 'a statue,' and statūra, 'stature.'

For victorix, by contraction.

¹ Ar-vo-m weakened to arvum, fac-to-s to factus; see 22, 2.

This is a matter of convenience, as new stems, or words, are formed from verb-stems in the same manner as from roots; see Schleicher, p. 347.

³ Except verb-stems. Remember that stems formed from verb-stems are treated as Primary; see 317, note.

Any suffix used to form a Secondary stem is called a Secondary suffix, but many suffixes may be either primary or secondary. Thus co in civicus is Secondary, as it is added to a stem; but in locus, 'place,' it is Primary, as it is added to a root.

Ecīvi is the stem of cīvis, 'citizen'; vīctor of vīctor, 'conqueror'.

Compounded of root fu with stem era from the root es; see 203, note 2, and 243,

⁸ For grandi-aevo.

^{*} Compounded of igni, the stem of ignis, 'fire,' and of color, the stem of color, 'color.'

¹⁰ Compounded of magno, the stem of magnus, 'great,' and of animo, the stem of animus, 'sonl,' magno-animo becoming magnanimo.

320. Suffixes.—Most suffixes appear to have been formed from a comparatively small number of primitive elements called

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

L	11.2	Examples.	
a,	ă,3 o, ē, e, i, ŏ, u,	ă and o in nouns and adjectives, ō in nouns, and e, i, ŏ, and u in verbs: scrīb-a, writer; fug-a, flight: jug-o, Nom jug-u-m,4 yoke; fid-ē, Nom. fid-ē-s, faith; reg-e,5 rule thou; reg-i-s, you rule; reg-ō, I rule; rey-u-nt, they rule.	
i,	i,	in a few nouns: $av-i$, Nom. $av-i-s$, bird; $arc-i$, Nom. $arc-i-s$, $arc-s$, $arc-$	
u,	u,	in nouns: 7 ac-u, Nom. ac-u-s, needle.	
an,	on, ōn, en, in,		
ant,9	ent, unt,	in present participles: 10 audient-s, 10 audiens, hearing; ab-es-ent-s, ab-sens, absent; amā-ent-s, amāns, loving.	

¹ Most suffixes appear to be of pronominal origin, i. e., from pronominal stems or roots, but, according to Bopp, Corssen, and others, a few may be of verbal origin. Thus in several suffixes beginning with b—seen in ber, bilis, bulum, etc.—Corssen recognizes the root bhar = fer in fer-a, 'to bear'; in some beginning with t—seen in ter, tor, tūrus, etc.—the root tar, 'to accomplish'; in some beginning with c—seen in cer, culum, crum. etc.—the root kar = cer, cre in cre-a, 'to make.' For a discussion of the subject, see Bopp, III., pp. 186-201; Corssen, I., p. 567; II., pp. 40, 68; Schleicher, p. 443.

² Column I. shows the suffix in its supposed original form, while column II. shows the various forms which the suffix has assumed in Latin.

³ Originally long in Latin in feminine forms; see 21, 2, 1).

- 4 Observe that these suffixes form stems, not cases. Sometimes the Nominative Singular is in form identical with the stem; but in most cases, the Nominative is formed from the stem by adding the Nominative suffix, as s in fide-s, m in jugu-m for jugo-m (o weakened to u, 22, 2).
- Observe that the Present stem takes the several forms, reg-e, reg-i, reg-\(\tilde{o}\), reg-u; but see page 118, foot-note 5.
- 6 Often thus dropped; sometimes changed to e, ē: mari, mare, sea; caedi, caede, caedē-a, slaughter.
 - 7 Also in adjectives, in union with i making ui: ten-ui-s, thin.
 - ⁸ N dropped; see 36, 5, 3).
- This is the base of seversi compound suffixes: ent.o, ent.id, ent.io—Nom. ent. um, ent.ia, and ent.ium; flu-ent.um, stream; sapi-ent.iu, wisdom; sil-ent.ium, silence.
- 16 Also in a few adjectives and nouns: frequents, frequent, frequent; pari-ents parëns. Here s is the Nominative ending.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES .- (Continued.)

I.	II.	Examples.
as,	os, us, es,¹ ēs, ōr, ur,	gen-os, gen-us, birth; corp-us, body; nūb-ès, cloud; rōb-ur, strength; sop-or (21, 2), sleep.
$\mathbf{ja}^4 = ya,$	iă, ⁵ io, iē,	iă and io in adjectives; iē in nouns: ex-im-id, ex-im-io, Nom. ex-im-iu-s, ex-im-ia, ex-im-iu-m, select; fac-ie, Nom. fac-ie-s, appearance.
$\mathbf{ja}^6 = ya,$	e, i, iŏ, iu,	in verb:: cap-e, take thou; cap-e-re, to take; cap-i-s, you take; cap-i-mus, we take; cap-io, I take; cap-iu-nt, they take.
jans ⁷ = yans,	iðs, iðr, ius, jðr, ðr,	in comparatives: mag-iôs, mag-iôr, mā-jôr, Nom. mā-jor (21, 2), greater; min-òr, min-or (21, 2), smaller; see 162, 165.
ka,	că, co,	rare: * pau-că, pau-co, pau-cus, a, um, small; lo-co, locus, place.
la,	lă, lo, li,	see ra.
ma,9	mă, mo,	for-ma, form; pri-mo, pri-mus, first; sup-mo, sum-mo (34, 3), sum-mus, highest; al-mo, al-mus, cherishing.

- ¹ This suffix seems to be used in forming the Latin Infinitive, in origin the Dative of a verbal noun: rey-es-e, reg-ere (31, 1). 'to rule'—lit., for ruling; e is the Dative ending (67, note); see Schleicher, p. 472. See also page 81, foot-note 2.
- ² With variable vowel (57, 2); in early Latin o, in classical Latin u in Nominative Singular, e in other cases. We thus have in early Latin os in gen-os, and in classical Latin us in gen-us, and es changed to er (31, 1) in gen-er-is, gen-er-i, etc. Words of this class take no Nominative ending.
- ³ With variable vowel—o, u. We thus have corp-us, corp-or-is, with s changed to r (31, 1). S final is also changed to r in robur; see 31, 2.
- 4 Doubtless a pronominal stem. It is common as a secondary suffix (page 154, footnote 4): pater-io, patr-io, Nom. patr-ius, paternal; victor-ia, victory; luxur-ia, luxur-iēs, luxury; see 325.
 - ⁵ Originally long in Latin, see 21, 2, 1).
- 6 Probably the verbal root ja, identical with i in ire, to go. So explained by Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 290-295. Ja was also used as a secondary suffix, appended to the stems of nouns and adjectives, in forming denominative verbs; see 335, foot-note.
- ⁷ This suffix is generally secondary: alt-ior, alt-ius, higher; sapient-ior, wiser; see 162.
- 8 It seems to appear without its final vowel in some nouns in x: ape-c-s, apex, point, top. It is common as a secondary suffix: civi-co, civi-cus, civic (330); and is also used in compound suffixes, as cu-lo, ci-no, ti-co: flos-cu-lus, a small flower; vāti-ci-nus, prophetic. See Schleicher, p. 475; Corssen, II., pp. 205, 306, 307.
- This is also an element in ti-mā, ti-mo, si-mā, si-mo, is-si-mā, is-si-mo: op-ti-mus, a, um, best; alt-is-si-mus, highest.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES .- (Continued.)

I.	II.	Examples.
man, ^I	men,² min,² mōn,	denoting the MEANS of the action, sometimes the ACT itself, or its RESULT: tegi-men, or tegmen, 2 a covering; no-men, 2 name; certā-men, contest; ser-mon, ser-mo, 4 discourse.
na, ⁵	nă, no,	 in adjectives with the force of perfect participles: *plēnā, plē-no, plē-nus, a, um, filled full; rēg-no, rēg-num, kingdom, that which is ruled. in nouns and adjectives with various meanings: *sop-no, som-no (33, 3, note), som-nus sleep.
ni,	ni,7	īg-ni, īg-nis, fire; pā-ni, pā-nis, bread.
nu,	nu,	very rare: ma-nu, ma-nus, hand.
ra, ⁸ la,	ră, ro, lă, lo, li,	ag-ro (agrus), ager, field; sac-ro (sac-rus), sacer sac-ra, sac-rum, sacred; sed-lå, sel-la (34, 2) seat; candè-la, a light; tè-lo, tè-lum, weapon doci-li, doci-lis, docile.
ta,9	tă, to, să, so,	1. in perfect participles: 10 amā-tō, amā-tus, a, um, loved; plaud-to, plau-so (35, 3), plau-sus, applauded; cōnā-tus, having tried; prān-sus, having taken lunch. 2. in a few adjectives: sex-to, sex-tus, sixth.

¹ This is an element in men-to, mon-td, and mon-to: nūtri-men-tum, putriment; queri-men-ta, complaint; testi-men-tum (secondary suffix), testimony.

² With variable vowel (57, 2). The suffix man is weakened to men in the Nominative Singular, and to min in the other cases.

- 3 For gno-men, 'name,' the means by which one is known.
- 4 N is dropped; see 36, 5, 3).
- ⁵ Nearly equivalent to ta. In some languages it forms passive participles like ta.
- ⁶ Often secondary: pater-no, pater-nus, paternal; sometimes preceded by \hat{a} , \hat{i} , or \hat{e} : $font-\hat{a}-nus$, of a fountain; $can-\hat{i}-nus$, canine; $ali-\hat{e}-nus$, belonging to another; see 327, 329, and 330.
- ⁷ As ta and na are closely related in meaning and use, so are ti and ni. They are sometimes united in the same suffix; ti-ō-ni (326).
- * Ra and la are only different forms of the same suffix. In Latin and Greek this suffix often forms verbal adjectives which sometimes pass into nouns: $gn\bar{a} \cdot rua$, 'knowing,' from $gn\bar{a}$ in $n\bar{o}$ -sc \bar{o} , 'to know'; $\delta\bar{\omega}$ - $\rho\nu\nu$, 'gift,' 'something given,' from δo in $\delta i\delta\omega\mu\nu$, 'to give.'
- In the form of ti it is the first element in ti-mus, a, um : op-ti-mus, best; and the second element in ti-si-mus, a, um : alt-tis-si-mus, highest. In the form of ti, it is the first element in ti-ti, shortened to ti ti: civ-tis = civ-ti-ti-s, state.
 - 16 Often becoming adjectives or nouns; al-to, al-tus, high; noi-tus, son.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I.	11.	Examples.
tar,	ter, tŏr,	see tra.
ti,¹	ti,² si,	in verbal nouns: ves-ti, ves-tis, garment; met-ti, met-tis, messis (35, 3), reaping, harvest.
tu,	tŭ,³	in verbal nouns, including supines: sta-tu, sta- tus, standing; i-tu, i-tus, going; dic-tū (su- pine), in telling, to tell.
tar,4 tra,4	ter, tŏr, tro,	ter 5 and tor denoting AGENCY; tro, MEANS pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother; vīc-tor, conqueror; audī-tor, hearer; arā-trum, plough.
vă,	vo, uo,	in nouns and adjectives: ar-vo, ar-vum, ploughed field; vac-uo, vac-uus, empty.

SECTION II.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

FORMATION OF NOUNS BY SUFFIXES.

I. From the Stems of Other Nouns.

321. DIMINUTIVES generally end in-

lus, la, lum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum:6

² I often disappears: men-ti, men-tis, men-ts, mens (36, 2), mind.

3 Tu is the first element in the suffixes, tu-å, tu-o; tū-ti, tūt, and tū-don; sta-tua, statne; mor-tuus, dead; servi-tūt, servi-tūt (servi-tūts), servi-tūs, servitude; turpi-tūdon, turpi-tūdo (n dropped), turpitude.

4 Perhaps of verbal origin (320, foot-note 1). This suffix seems to be the basis of several compound suffixes: tēr-iā, tūr-io, tūrā, tūro, trīc for tōr-ī-c, etc.; see examples, 324, 326, 330.

⁵ Ter is used in names denoting family relationship, originally agency: pa-ter, lit., protector, from the root pa, to protect.

⁶ For the convenience of the learner the suffixes are given in the Nominative form. i. e., with the Nominative ending and the modified stem-vowel. Observe that the stem suffix in lu-s and lu-m is lo. The endings, ulus, ula, ulum, were developed irregularly after the analogy of u-lus, u-lum in such words as hortu-lus, virgu-lus, oppidu-lum, where the u is the modified stem-vowel. Thus the u in reg-u-lus and capit-u-lum is an irregularity introduced from the Diminutives of a and o stems. Lus, la, lum are formed from the suffix la or ra, often used in forming Primary Stems (320). Culus, cula, culum are compound suffixes in which the first part, cu, is formed from the suffix, originally ka, modified in Latin to co, cu, seen in lo-co-s, locus, place; see 320, ku, foot-note.

¹ Ti is the first element in ti-ă, ti-o, ti-ò, ti-ò-ni, ti-ôn (i dropped): jūsti-tia, justice; servi-tio, servi-tium, service; dūri-tiè, dūri-tiès, hardness; sta-tiòn, sta-tiò (n dropped), station.

filio-lus,	a little son,	from	fīlius,	son.
fīlio-la,	a little daughter,	"	fīlia,	daughter.
atrio-lum,	a small hall,	44	ātrium,	hall.
alveo-lus,	a small cavity,	44	alveus,	eavity.
hortu-lus,	a small garden,	"	hortus,	garden.
virgu-la,	a small branch,	ιι	virga,	branch.
oppidu-lum,	a small town,	"	oppidum,	town.
rēg-ulus,	a petty king,	"	rēx,	king.
capit-ulum,	a small head,	"	caput,	head.
flos-culus,	a small flower,	"	flős,	flower.
parti-cula,	a small part,	"	pars,	part.
mūnus-culum,	a small present,	"	mūnus,	present.

- 1. Lus, la, lum, are appended to a and o stems; ulus, ula, ulum, to Dental and Guttural stems; culus, cula, culum, to e, i, and u stems, and to Liquid and s stems; see examples.
- 2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem-vowels a and o take the form of o after e or i, and the form of u in other situations: filio-lus, filio-la for filià-la, hortu-lus for horto-lus.
- 3. Before culus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, 'a little verse,' from versus; homun-culus, 'a small man,' from homo. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula: av-unculus, 'maternal uncle,' from avus, 'grandfather.' 1
- 4. El·lus, el·la, el·lum, il·lus, il·la, il·lum,² are used when the stem of the primitive ends in ǎ or o, preceded by l, n, or r: occl·lus,² 'small eye,' from oculus; fābel·la, 'short fable,' from fābula; vīl-lum,² 'a small wine,' from vīnum.

Note.—The endings leus and cið occur: ecu-leus,3 'a small horse,' from equus; homun-ciò, 'a small man,' from homö.

322. Patronymics, or names of Descent, generally end indes, stem-suffix da, masculine; s for ds, stem-suffix d, feminine.

Tantali-dēs, son of Tantalus; Tantali-s, daughter of Tantalus. Thesia-dēs, son of Theseus; Thestia-dēs, son of Thestius; Thestia-s, daughter of Thestius.

Note.—The suffix $n\tilde{e}$, preceded by \tilde{t} or \tilde{e} , is sometimes used in forming feminine Patronymies: $Nept\tilde{u}n\tilde{t}$ - $n\tilde{e}$, daughter of Neptune; $\tilde{A}orist\tilde{v}$ - $n\tilde{e}$, daughter of Acrisins.

- Nūbē-cula, plibē-cula, and vulpē-cula are formed as if from e-stems.
- ² The syllables el and il do not belong to the ending, but are produced by a slight change in the stem. The quantity of the vowel e or i is therefore determined by the primitive thus, oculus, oculu-lus = ocul-lus = ocel-lus; $v\bar{v}num$, $v\bar{v}nu-lum = v\bar{v}n-lum = v\bar{v}l-lum$.
 - 3 Also written equuleus, but eculeus is the approved form.
- 4 The vowel preceding the suffix is usually i, as in Tuntali-dēs, Tantali-s, medified from the stem-vowel o. Primitives in eus generally change eu to i or ēi, as in Thēsi-dēs, Thēsēi-s; and primitives in ius change stem-vowel o to a, as in Thēstia-dēs Other nouns sometimes form Patronymics after the analogy of nouns in ius: Lâertiadēa son of Laertes. Aenēdē has Aenēdēs, masculine, and Aenēds, feminine.

323. DESIGNATIONS OF PLACE are often formed with the endings-

	ārium, ē	tum, tum,	īle.¹	
columb-ārium,	a dovecot,		columba,	dove.
querc-ētum,	a forest of oak		quercus,	oak.
salīc-tum,	a thicket of wil		salīx,	willow.
ov-īle,	a sheepfold,		ovis,	sheep.

- 1. Ārium designates the PLACE where anything is kept, a receptacle: xerārium, 'treasury,' from acs, money.
- 2. **Ētum, tum,** used with names of trees and plants, designate the PLACE where they flourish: olivētum, 'an olive-grove,' from oliva, 'olive-tree.'
- 3. Ile, used with names of animals, designates their STALL or FOLD: bovile, 'stall for cattle,' from bos, stem bov.
 - 4. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Aestu-ārium, 'tidal bay,' from aestus, 'tide'; avi-ārium, 'aviary,' from avis, 'bird'; dōn-ārium, 'place for offerings,' from dōnum, 'gift'; pōm-ārium, 'orchard,' from pōmum, 'fruit'; aescul-ētum, 'forest of oaks,' from aesculus, 'oak'; pīn-ētum, 'pine-forest,' from pīnus, 'pine'; ros-ētum, 'rose-bed,' from rosa, 'rose'; vīn-ētum, 'vineyard,' from vīnum, 'vine'; virqul-tum, 'a thicket,' from virgula, 'bush'; capr-īle, 'goat-stall,' from caper, 'goat.'

324. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with—

ārius, iŏ, ium, itium, īna, imonium, itas, tūs, ātus.2

statu-ārius,	a statuary,	from	statua,	statue.
mūl-iŏ,	muleteer,	44	mūlus,	mule.
sacerdot-ium,	priesthood,	"	sacerdos,	priest,
serv-itium,	servitude,	"	servus,	slave.
rēg-īna,	queen,	44	rēx,	king.
patr-imonium,	patrimony,	"	pater,	father.
eīv-itās,	citizenship.	"	cīvis,	citizen,
vir-tūs,	virtue,	"	vir,	man.
consul-ātus,	consulship,	"	consul,	consul.

- 1. Ārius and io generally designate Persons by their occupations.
- 2. Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.

¹ Arium and ile are the endings of neuter adjectives used substantively (330). The rowels \tilde{a} and \tilde{i} were probably developed ont of the stem-vowel of the primitive, but they were afterward treated as a part of the suffix. For an explanation of such vowels, see 330, foot-not. Many derivative endings were thus formed originally by the union of certain suffixes with the stem-vowel of the primitive; accordingly, when added to vowel stems, they generally take the place of the stem-vowel: $columb-\tilde{a}$, $columb-\tilde{a}rium$; querc-o, $querc-\tilde{c}lum$.

² Ārius is identical in origin with the adjective ending $\tilde{a}rius$ (330), and $\tilde{a}tus$ with $\tilde{a}tus$ in participles. In each the initial \tilde{a} was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive. Ina is the same formation as the adjective ending $\tilde{i}nus$ (330). On i-tium, i-monium, i-tis, and $t\tilde{i}s$, see ti. ta, tu, man, $m\tilde{o}n$, with foot-notes, 320; remember that the initial i was developed from the stem-vowel of the primitive.

- 3. Ina and imônium are used with some variety of signification; see examples nuder 7 below.
- 4. Itās and tūs designate some CHARACTERISTIC OF CONDITION; hīrēd-i-tūs, 'heirship,' from hērēs, 'heir'; virtūs, 'manliness,' 'virtue,' from vir.
- 5. Ātus denotes RANK, OFFICE, COLLECTION: consulatus, 'consulship,' from consul; senatus, 'senate,' 'collection of old men,' from senex.
 - 6. For Patrial or Gentile Nouns, see 331, note 1.

Note.—The endings $\bar{a}g\tilde{b}$, $\bar{t}g\tilde{b}$, and $\bar{u}g\tilde{b}$ also occur: vir- $\bar{a}g\tilde{b}$, 'heroic maiden,' from vir, 'hero'; ferr- $\bar{u}g\tilde{b}$, 'iron-rust,' from ferrum, 'iron.'

7. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Libr-ārius, 'transcriber of books,' from liber, 'book'; līgn-ārius, 'joiner,' from līgnum, 'wood'; quadrīg-ārius, 'driver of a four-horse chariot,' from quadrīga, 'four-horse chariot'; arbitr-ium, 'decision,' from arbiter, 'arbiter'; conjug-ium, 'wedlock,' from conjūnx, 'spouse'; magis-ter-ium, 'presidency,' from magis-ter, 'president'; \(\tilde{os}\)-tium, 'door,' from \(\delta\), 'mouth'; \(gall\)-\(\tilde{tn}\)a, 'hen,' from gallus, 'cock'; \(dotr\)-\(\tilde{tn}\)a, for \(dot\)dotrine,' from \(matrimon\),' from \(matrimon\),' from \(matter\) matter, 'mother'; \(ae\tilde{till}\)-tiles, 'office of edile,' from \(ae\tilde{till}\), 'edile'; \(auct\)origin-itas, 'authority,' from \(auct\)origin, 'founder,' 'author'; \(senec\)-tiles, 'old \(age\),' from \(senex\), 'old \(man'\); \(trib\)une.'

II. Nouns from Adjectives.

325. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings—

ia, itia, ta, tās, itās, tūs, ēdŏ, itūdŏ, imōnia.3

diligent-ia,	diligence,	from	dīligēns.	diligent.
superb-ia,	haughtiness,	"	superbus,	haughty.
amīc-itia.	friendship,	66	amicus,	friendly.
juven-ta,	youth,	66	juvenis,	young.
līber-tās,	freedom,	**	liber.	free.
bon-itās,	goodness,	44	bonus,	good.
pi-etās,4	piety.	46	pius,	pious.
juven-tūs,	wouth.	et	juvenis,	young.
dulc-ēdő,	sweetness.	66	dulcis.	sweet.
sől-itűdő.	solitude.	4	sõlus,	alone.
ācr-imonia.	sharpness,	ec.	ācer,	sharp.

¹ These endings were formed, according to Corssen, by appending the suffix an to ag, the root of $ag\bar{o}$, to put in motion, make, do; see Corssen, I., p. 577.

² As if formed from a verb, tribānō, āre, like equit-ātus, 'cavalry,' from equitō, āre, 'to ride,' from eques, 'a horseman.'

⁴ For pi-itās by dissimilation (26).

Note 1.—Instead of ia and itia, iès and itiès occur: pauper, pauper-iès, poverty, turus, dur-itia or dur-itiès, hardness.

NOTE 2.—Before tās the stem of the adjective is sometimes slightly changed: facilia, facultās, faculty; difficilis, difficultās, difficultās, difficultās, potēns, potēns, potens, power.

Note 8.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both it ās and it ādā: firmus, firmtās, firmitādā, firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus often suffer contraction before these endings: honestās for honest-itās, 'honesty,' from honestus; sollicitādā, 'solicitādā, 'solicitādā, 'solicitādā, 'solicitādā, 'solicitade,' from sollicitus.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES Are-

Audāc-ia, 'boldness,' from audāx, 'bold'; jūst-itia, 'justice,' from jūstus, just'; saev-itia, 'cruelty,' from saevus, 'cruel'; senec-ta, 'old age,' from senex, 'old'; aequāl-itās, 'equality,' from aequālis, 'equal'; cār-itās, 'dearness,' from cārus, 'dear'; ānxi-etās, 'anxiety,' from ānxius, 'anxious'; alitūdō, 'height,' from altus, 'high'; fort-itūdō, 'bravery,' from fortis, 'brave'; māgn-itūdō, 'greatness,' from māgnus, 'great.'

III. NOUNS FROM VERBS AND FROM ROOTS.

326. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed numerous nouns with the suffixes—1

ter, tor,2 trīx, trum, tūra, tus, tiŏ, iŏ.3

pa-ter,	father,	from the root	pa,	to protect.
frā-ter,	brother,	"	bhra, fra,	to support.
amā-tor,	lover,	44	amā-re,	to love.
audi-tor,	hearer,	"	audi-re,	to hear.
dēfēn-sor,	defender,	"	dēfend-ere,	to defend
vēnā-tor,	hunter,	"	vēnā-rī,	to hunt.
vēnā-trīx,	huntress,	"	"	44
gubernā-trīx,	directress,	46	gubernā-re,	to direct.
arā-trum,	plough,	"	arā-re,	to plough.
ros-trum,4	beak,	66	rōd-ere,	to gnaw.
pic-tor,	painter,	66	ping-ere,	to paint.
pīc-tūra,	painting,	46	P1B, 61-5,	"
ū-sūra, ⁵	using,	66	ūt-ī,	to use.
audī-tus,	hearing,	66	audī-re,	to hear.
vī-sus,	sight,	44	vid-ēre,	to see.
audī-tiŏ,	hearing,	46	audī-re,	to hear.
moni-tio,8	advising,	44	monē-re,	to advise.
vī-siŏ, ⁵	seeing,	46	vid-ēre.	to see.
leg-iŏ,	a selecting,	"	leg-ere,	to select.
occīd-iŏ,	a slaying,	"	occīd-ere,	to slay.

¹ These endings appear to be true suffixes, as they do not contain the stem-vowel of the primitive.

² For the phonetic change by which t in tor, $t\bar{u}ra$, etc., unites with a preceding d or t and produces ss or s, as in $d\bar{e}fend$ -tor, $d\bar{e}f\bar{e}nsor$, see 35, 3, 2).

On ter, tor, tria, and tūra, see tar, tra; on tus and ttö, see tu and tt; and on iñ. see ja, 320.

⁴ For rod-trum: see 35, 8, 1).

For ūt-tūra, vid-tus, vid-tič; see 35 3 2)

^{&#}x27; From stem moni, seen in mont-tum

- 1. Ter, tor, and trīm designate the AGENT OF DOER; trum, the MEANS of the action; and tūra, tus, tiŏ, and iŏ, the ACT itself; see examples. But nouns in tus and iŏ sometimes become concrete, and denote the RESULT of the action: quaes-tus, 'gain,' from quaes-ere, 'to gain'; leg-iŏ, 'a selecting' and then 'a legion' (the men selected), from leg-erc, 'to select'; exerci-tus, 'exercise,' 'drill,' and then 'an army' (a collection of trained men), from exercē-re, 'to exercise.'
- 2. Us, a, ŏ¹ sometimes designate the agent of the action: coqu-us = coquus, cook, from coqu-ere, to cook; scrīb-a, writer, from scrīb-ere; err-ŏ, wanderer, from err-āre.

Note 1.—Tor, trix, tūra, and tus are sometimes added to noun stems with or without change: viā-tor, 'traveler,' from via, 'way'; senā-tor, 'senator,' from senece (Genitive senis, stem sen), 'old man'; jāni-tor, 'janitor,' and jāni-trīx, 'janitrix,' from jān-ua, 'gate'; litterā-tūra, 'writing,' from littera, 'letter'; cōnsul-ā-tus, 'consulship,' from cōnsul, 'consul.'

Note 2.—For nouns in $i\check{o}$ from the stems of other neuns, see 324, with 1.

3. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Accūsā-tor, 'accuser,' from accūsā-re, 'to accuse'; cūrā-tor, 'keeper,' from cūrā-re, 'to take care of'; da-tor, 'giver,' from da-re, 'to give'; vīc-tor, 'victor,' from vinc-ere,² 'to conquer'; inven-trīx, 'a female discoverer,' from inven-īre, 'to discover'; monstrum = mon-es-trum,³ 'prodigy,' from mon-ēre, 'to admonish'; rās-trum, 'rake,' from rād-ere, 'to rake,' 'scrape'; armā-tūra, 'arming,' 'equipment,' from armā-re, 'to arm'; nā-tūra, 'birth,' 'nature,' from nā-seī, 'to be born'; scrīp-tūra, for scrīb-tūra,' o'writing,' from scrīb-ere, 'to write'; āc-tus, for ag-tus, 'd'ving,' 'act,' from ag-ere, 'to drive,' 'act'; āc-tū,' for ag-tiō, 'action,' from ag-ere, 'to act'; mon-tiō,' cat of admonishing,' from monè-re, 'to admonish'; mon-tus, 'admonition,' from monè-re, 'to admonish'; opin-ōō, 'opinion,' from opīn-ārī, 'to think'; opt-tō, 'choice,' from opt-āre, 'to choose.'

327. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed nouns with the suffixes—

or, us, ēs, iēs, ium, en, men, mentum, mōnia, mōnium, bulum, culum, brum, crum, num.

¹ O and d, the stems of us and a, are only different forms of the suffix a; and δn , the stem of δ , δnis , is from the suffix an; see 320.

² Root ric.

³ With the compound suffix es-trum, from as-tra; see as and tra, 320.

⁴ Root nā.

⁵ See 33, 1.

⁶ Observe change in quantity: ag-ere, āc-tus; see Gellius, IX., 6.

⁷ On the forms bulum, brum, culum, crum, see 35, 2, foot-note 3.

⁸ On or (for os), us, and és, see as; on ies and ium, see ja; on en, see an: on men, mentum, monia, and monium, see man; on num, see na—aii in 320; on bulum, brum, culum, orum, see Corssen, II., p. 40.

am-or,	love,	\mathbf{from}	am-āre,	to love.
tim-or,	fear.	"	tim-ēre,	to fear.
gen-us,	birth, .	"	gen in gign-ere,	to bear.
frīgus,	cold,	"	frīg-ere,1	to be cold.
sēd-ēs,	seat,	"	sed-ēre,2	to sit.
fac-ies.	make, face,	"	fac-ere,	to make.
gaud-ium,	joy,	"	gaud-ēre,	to rejoice.
stud-ium,	zeal, study,	"	stud-ēre,	to be zcalous
pect-en,	a comb,	66	pect-ere,	to comb.
flü-men,	a stream,	66	flu-ere,	to flow.
orna-mentum,	ornament,	"	ōrnā-re,	to adorn,
queri-mōnia,	complaint,	"	querī,	to complain.
ali-monium,	nourishment,	"	ale-re.	to nourish.
vocā-bulum,	appellation,	"	vocā-re,	to call.
vehi-culum,	vehicle,	"	vehe-re,	to carry.
dēlū-brum,	shrine,	66	dēlu-ere,	to cleansc.
simulā-crum,	image,	44	simulā-re,	to represent.
rēg-num,	reign,	46	reg-ere,	to rule.

- 1. Or, us, ēs, iēs, and ium generally designate the action or STATE denoted by the verb, but ēs, iēs, and ium sometimes designate the RESULT of the action: aedificium, 'edifice,' from aedific-āre, 'to build.'
- 2. **Men, mentum, monia, monium,** and **num** generally designate the MEANS of the action, or its involuntary subject, sometimes the act itself, or its RESULT: flü-men, 'a stream,' 'something which flows,' from flu-ere; äg-men, 'an army in motion,' from ag-ere.

Note.—The stem or root is sometimes shortened or changed: $m\ddot{o}$ -mentum, 'moving force,' from mov- $\ddot{e}re$.

3. Bulum, culum, brum, and crum designate the INSTRUMENT or the PLACE of the action: vehi-culum, 'vehicle' (instrument of the action), from vehe-re: sta-bulum, 'stall' (place of the action), from stā-re.

Note.—The vowel of the stem is sometimes changed: eepul-crum, 'sepulchre,' from eepel-tre, 'to bury'; see 24, 8.

 In culum, c is dropped after c and g: vine-ulum, 'a bond,' from vine-tre: reg-ula, 'rule,' from reg-ere.

Note. $-D\delta$, la, $\bar{a}g\bar{b}$, $\bar{i}g\bar{b}$, and a few other endings also occur: $lorp\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{b}$, 'numbness,' from $lorp\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$ 'to be numb'; $lorp\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{b}$, 'desire,' from lore- $r\bar{e}$, 'to desire'; lore- $r\bar{e}$, 'to shine'; lore- $r\bar{e}$, 'whirlpool,' from lore- $r\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$, 'to shine'; lore- $r\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$, 'to increase of turn,' from lore- $r\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$, 'to turn.'

5. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Splend-or, orightness,' from splend-ere, 'to be bright'; op-us, 'work,' trom the root op for ap, 'work'; dec-us, 'ornament,' from root dec, in dec-et,

In several or these examples the noun is not strictly derived from the verb, but both noun and verb are formed from one common root, as friq-us and friq-ere from the root friq.

² Sed-ère and sēd-ēs show a variable root-vowel-e, ē; see 20, note 2.

³ See Corssen, I., p. 577; II., pp. 802, 303.

it is becoming'; nūb-ès, 'cloud,' from the root nūb in nūb-ere, 'to veil'; spec-ies, 'look,' from spec-ere, 'to look'; effug-ium, 'escape,' from effug-ere, 'to escape'; imper-ūm, 'command,' from imper-ūme, 'to command'; certāmen, 'contest,' from certā-re, 'to contend'; docu-mentum, 'lesson,' 'document,' from docè-re, 'to teach'; nūtrī-mentum, 'nourishment,' from nūtrī-re, 'to nourish ; pā-bulum, 'fodder,' from the root pā in pā-scere, 'to feed'; spectā-culum, 'sight,' from spectā-re, 'to behold'; tw-crum, 'gain,' from lu-ere, 'to pay'; dō-num,' 'gift,' from the root da in da-re, 'to give.'

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES BY SUFFIXES.

I. Adjectives from Nouns.

328. Fullness.—Adjectives denoting fullness, abundance, supply, generally end in—

	õsus, cõsus,	lēns, len	itus, tus.º	
anim-ōsus,	full of courage,	from	animus,	spirit, courage
fructu-ōsus,	fruitful,	"	frūctus,	fruit.
belli-cosus,	warlike,	"	bellum,	war.
pesti-lēns,	pestilential,	"	pestis,	pest.
pesti-lentus,	• "	66	- "	- 4
vīno-lentus,	full of wine,	44	vīnum,	w i ne.
fraudu-lentus,	fraudulent,	66	fraus,	fraud.
ālā-tus,	winged,	46	āla	wing.
turrī-tus,	turreted,	"	turris,	turret.
cornū-tus,	horned,	66	cornū,	horn.
jūs-tus,	just,	"	jūs,	right.

Note.—Before δsus the stem-vowel is generally dropped, but * is retained: $anim c \delta sus$, $anim \delta sus$, but $fr \bar{u}ctu - \bar{o}sus$.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are—

Ann-ōsus, 'full of years,' from annus, 'year'; luxuri-ōsus, 'luxurious,' from luxuria, 'luxury'; perīcul-ōsus, 'dangerous,' from perīculum, 'danger'; tenebr-ōsus and tenebri-cōsus, 'gloomy,' from tenebrae, 'gloom'; turbu-lentus, 'riotous,' from turba, 'riot'; barbā-tus, 'bearded,' from barba, 'beard'; aurī-tus, 'long eared,' from auris, 'ear'; onus-tus, 'burdened,' from onus, 'burden.'

329. MATERIAL.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in—

¹ With modified stem or root: doce, docu; da, do.

² On ōsus, see Schleicher, p. 403; Corssen, I., p. 62; II., p. 688. Cōsus is from co and ōsus; thus from belli-cus, is formed belli-cus, belonging to war'; and from belli-cus is formed bellico-ōsus, belli-cōsus, 'warlike.' On lōns, lentus, see ra, la, 320. The vowel before lōns, lentus—generally u, sometimes o or i—was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, as in vīno-lentus, pesti-lēns, pesti-lēntus, but it was sometimes treated as a part of the suffix: ri-olentus, 'violent,' from vīs, 'force.' Tus is identical with tus in the passive participle, and when added to vowel-stems is preceded by ā, ī, or ū: ālā-tus, turri-tus, cornū-tus, like amā-tus, audī-tus, acū-tus ('sharpend,' from acu-o, 'to sharpen'). It may, however, be added to consonant-stems 'j'is tus.

eus, nus, neus, āceus, icius.1

aur-eus, argent-eus, fāg-eus,	golden, of silver, of beech,	from "	aurum, argentum, fāgus,	gol d. silver. a beech.
fāgi-nus, ² fāgi-neus, ² pōpul-nus, ³	of poplar,	"	o populus,	" a poplar
popul-neus, ³ papŷr-āceus,	of papyrus,	"	papýrus,	papyrus.
later-icius,	of brick,	46	later,	brick.

Note.—These endings sometimes denote characteristic or possession: virgineus, 'belonging to a maiden.'

330. Characteristic.—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in—

cus, icus, ālis, Ilis, ānus, Inus, āris, ārius, ius, ēnsis.4

cīvi-cus,	relating to a citizen,	from	cīvis,	citizen.
patr-icus,	paternal,	"	pater,	father.
nātūr-ālis,	natural.	66	nātūra,	nature.
mort-ālis,	mortal,	"	mors,	death.
host-īlis,	hostile,	"	hostis,	enemy.
cīv-īlis,	relating to a citizen,	46	cīvis,	citizen.
oppid-anus,	of the town,	"	oppidum,	town.
urb-ānus,	of the city,	"	urbs,	city.
mar-īnus,	marine,	"	mare,	sea.
equ-inus,	of, pertaining to a horse,	"	equus,	horse.
lūn-āris,	lunar,	44	lūna,	moon.
salūt-āris,	salutary,	"	salūs,	safety.
auxili-ārius,	auxiliary,	"	auxilium,	aid.
rēg-ius,	royal,	"	rēx,	king.
ōrātōr-ius,	of an orator,	"	ōrātor,5	orator.
for-ēnsis,	forensic,	"	forum,	forum.

¹ On eus, stem eo, see Corssen, II., pp. 342-346; Bopp, III., p. 429; on nus, see na, 320. Neus adds eus to no, seen in nus; āceus adds eus to āc, seen in ā α (333, foot-note 2); and ic-ius adds ius to ic or ico; see ja, 320, and icus, 330.

² Stem-vowel changed to i before nus and neus.

³ Stem-vowel dropped before nus and neus.

^{*} On cus, see ka, 320. In *i-cus*, *i* was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, but was finally treated as a part of the suffix, as in patr-icus. In the same way the vowels ā and ī in ālis, īlis, āris, ārius, ānus, and īnus were developed from the stem-vowels of the primitives; thus in such words as \$aoc-i-ils\$, 'doelle,' from \$aoc-i-re\$, the suffix seems to have been originally lis, but at length the preceding i was treated as a part of the suffix, making lis. If now ills be added to hosti, the stem of hostis, we shall have hosti-lis = host-lits; or, with Corssen, we may suppose that from hostis was formed the verb hosti-re\$, and that the ending lis was added directly to hosti, making hosti-lis. Tha long initial vowel in other endings is supposed to have had a similar origin. Ālis, lits, and āris are virtually the same suffix, as \$l\$ and \$r\$ are interchangeable; see \$ra\$, \$la\$, foot-note, 320. Ārius = āri-ius\$. On ānus, īnus, and ius, see ja and na, 320; on interests, see Corssen, I., pp. 62, 254; II., pp. 658, 719.

But ora-tor is formed from ora-re by adding tor to the stem; see 326.

- 1. Ester or estris, timus, itimus, ticus, cinus, and a few other end lngs occur: terr-ester or terr-estris, 'terrestrial,' from terra, 'earth'; maritimus, 'maritime,' from mare, 'sea'; lēg-itimus, 'lawful,' from lēx, lēgis, 'law'; rūs-ticus, 'rustic,' from rūs, 'country'; vāti-cinus, 'prophetic,' from vātēs, 'prophet.'
 - 2. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Domini-cus, 'of a master,' from dominus, 'master'; serv-īlis, 'slavish,' from servus, 'slave'; vir-īlis, 'manly,' from vir, 'man'; capit-ālis, 'of the head,' 'capital,' from caput, 'head'; rēg-ālis, 'kingly,' from rēr, 'king'; consul-āris, 'consular,' from cōnsul, 'consul'; mīlit-āris, 'military,' from mīles, 'soldier'; agr-ārius, 'of or relating to land,' from ager, 'field'; argent-ārius, 'of silver,' from argentum, 'silver'; can-īnus, 'of a dog,' from canis, 'dog'; lup-īnus, 'of a wolf,' from lupus, 'wolf'; mont-ānus, 'of a mountain,' from mōns, 'mountain'; nox-ius, 'injurious,' from nora, 'injury'; patr-ius, 'of a father,' from pater, 'father'; imperātōr-ius, 'of a commander,' from imperātor, 'commander.'

331. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in-

ānus, iānus, Inus; ius, iacus, icus; ēnsis, iēnsis; ās, aeus, ēus.3

Sull-ānus,	of Sulla,	from	Sulla,	Sulla.
Rom-anus,	Roman,	"	Rōma,	Rome.
Mari-anus,	of Marius,	46	Marius,	Marius.
Ciceron-ianus,	Ciceronian,	"	Cicerŏ,	Cicero.
Lat-Inus,9	Latin,	"	Latium,	Latium.
Plaut-inus,	of Plautus,	44	Plautus,	Plautus.
Corinth-ius,	Corinthian,	"	Corinthus,	Corinth.
Corinth-iacus,	" '	"	" '	"
Britann-icus,	British,	"	Britannus,	a Briton.
Cann-ēnsis,	of Cannae,	44	Cannae,	Cannae.
Athen-iensis,	Athenian,	46	Athenae,	Athens.
Fīdēn-ās,	of Fidenae,	"	Fīdēnae,	Fidenae.
Smyrn-aeus,	Šmyrnean,	"	Smyrna,	Smyrna.
Pythagor-ēus,	Pythagorean,	"	Pythagorās,	Pythagoras.

1. Anus and ianus are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

NOTE 1.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as *Patrial* or *Gentile Nouns* to designate the citizens of the place: *Corinthii*, the Corinthlans; *Athéniènsès*, the Athenians.

NOTE 2.—The Roman Gentës or clans were all designated by adjectives in ius, as gens Cornelia, gens Jūlia.

- ¹ The ending ester or estris may be formed by adding ter or tris to es from the suffix as (320); but see Corssen, II., p. 549.
 - 2 On ti-mus, i-ti-mus, and ti-cus, see ta, ma, ca, 320.

When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the stem-vowel: Sull-inus. In fact, ānus is formed by the union of the stem-vowel with the suffix. So in Mari-inus, but in examples like this the i before ānus was finally treated as a part of the suffix, making iānus, as seen in Cieerān-iānus. Īnus in Lat-inus contains io, from Lat-io, the stem of Lutium.

Note 8.—An adjective in ius, used substantively, formed a part of the name of every distinguished Roman, and designated the gens to which he belonged; see Roman Names, 649.

II. ADJECTIVES FROM ADJECTIVES.

332. DIMINUTIVES from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (321) in—

lus, ulus, culus.1

ēbrio-lus,	somewhat drunken,	from	ēbrius,	drunken
aureo-lus,	golden,	66	aureus,	golden.
long-ulus,	rather long,	"	longus,	long.
pauper-culus,	rather poor,	66	pauper,	poor.

Note 1.—The endings ellus and illus also occur as in nouns (321, 4): nov-ellus, new,' from novus, 'new.'

NOTE 2.—Culus is sometimes added to comparatives: dūrius-culus, 'somewhat hard,' from dūrior, dūrius, 'harder.'

III. ADJECTIVES FROM VERBS AND FROM ROOTS.

333. Verbal adjectives generally end in-

bundus, cundus, dus; bilis, tilis, silis, lis; āx.2

	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		, , , ,	
mīrā-bundus,	wondering,	from	mīrā-rī,	to wonder.
mori-bundus,	dying,	66	morī,	to die.
verē-cundus,	diffident,	"	verē-rī,	to fear.
cali-dus.	warm,	44	calē-re,	to be warm
pavi-dus,	fearful,	"	pavē-re,	to fear.
amā-bilis,	worthy of love,	"	amā-re,	to love.
dūc-tilis,	ductile,	"	dūc-ere,	to lead.
flec-silis, ⁸) flexilis, (flexible,	66	flect-ere,	to turn.
doci-lis,	docile,	44	docē-re,	to teach.
pūgn-āx,	pugnacious,	46	pūgnā-re,	to fight.
aud-āx,	daring,	"	audē-re,	to dare.

- 1. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the participle: laetā-bundus, rejoicing greatly; and cundus generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: verē-cundus, diffident.
 - 2. Dus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
- 3. Bilis, tilis, silis, and lis denote CAPABILITY, generally in a passive sense: amābilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

¹ See p. 158, foot-note 6.

² Bundus is explained by Corssen and others as formed by appending undus, endus, the Gerundive suffix, to bu=fu, as seen in fui; cundus, by adding the same suffix to oo (ka, 320); see Corssen, II., pp. 310-312. On dus, see Corssen, II., pp. 302, 303; on lis, see ra, la, 320; and on bi/ls, 320, foot-note 1; also Corssen, I., pp. 166-169; on ti/ls and si/ls, Corssen, II., pp. 41, 326. The ending dx = d - c - s is for d - c - c - s, in which d was originally the stem-rowel of an d - v - c - b - c thus p i g - c - c - c - c becomes p i g - c - c - c pagnate.

^{*} Flec-silis = flect-tilis; see 35, 8, 2).

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- 4. Ax denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquax, loquacious.
- 5. Cus, Icus, ūcus, vus, uus, Ivus, tivus, ticius, ius, and ulus also occur:

Medi-cus, 'healing,' 'medical,' from medè-rī, 'to heal'; am-īcus, 'friendiy,' from am-āre, 'to love'; cad-ūcus, 'falling,' 'inclined to fall,' from cad-ere, 'to fall'; sal-vus, 'safe,' from root sal, 'whole,' 'sound'; noc-uus and noc-īvus, 'hurtful,' from noc-ēre, 'to hurt'; cap-tīvus, 'captive,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; fictīcius, for fig-tīcius, 'feigned,' from fig, the root of fing-ere, 'to form,' 'fashion,' 'feign'; exim-ius, 'select,' 'choice,' from exim-ere, 'to select out'; crēd-ulus, 'credulous,' from crēd-ere, 'to believe.'

6. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Lūdi-bundus, 'sportive,' 'playful,' from lūde-re, 'to play'; rīdi-bundus, 'laughing,' from rīdē-re, 'to laugh'; fā-cundus, 'eloquent,' from fā-rī, 'to speak'; jū-cundus, for juv-cundus, 'pleasant,' from juv-ūre, 'to aid,' 'delight'; avi-dus, 'greedy,' from avē-re, 'to long for'; cupi-dus, 'desirous,' from cupe-re, 'to desire'; timi-dus, 'timid,' from timē-re, 'to fcar'; faci-lis, 'easy,' 'capable of being done,' from face-re, 'to do'; nūbi-lis, 'marriage-able,' from nūbe-re, 'to marry'; ūti-lis, 'useful,' from ūtī, 'to use'; crēdi-bilis, 'credible,' from crēde-re, 'to believe'; terri-bilis, 'terrible,' from terrē-re, 'to terrify'; laudā-bilis, 'praiseworthy,' from laudā-re, 'to praise'; fertile,' from fer-re, 'to bear'; cap-āx, 'capacious,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; ten-āx, 'tenacious,' from ten-ēre, 'to bold.'

IV. Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions.

334. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions:²

crās-tinus, contrā-rius, inter-nus, super-bus,	of to-morrow, contrary, internal, haughty,	from " "	crās, contrā, inter, super,	to-morrow. against. among, within. above.
super-nus,	upper,	44	4	"

FORMATION OF VERBS BY SUFFIXES.

I. VERBS FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

335. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives are called DENOMINATIVES. They end in-

Conj. I.	Conj. II.	Conj. III.	Conj. IV.
ō, ā-re,	eō, ē-re,	uō, ue-re,3	iō, ī-re.4

¹ Vus. nus, and i-vus are only different forms of the same suffix; uus was formed by vocalizing v ln vus; i-vus, by adding vus to the stem-vowei i; noc-i-vus, as if from a crb, noc-ire = noc-ire. The other endings are composed of elements already explained.

² But adverbs and prepositions are in origin case-forms; see 304; 307, note 1.

³ Conjugation III. contains primitive verbs with a few derivatives.

⁴ According to Curtius and others, the suffix which was added to the stems of noung and adjectives to form verbe west originally ja, pronounced ya, probably identical with

cūr-ō,	ã-re,	to care for,	from	cūr-a,	care.
fug-ō,	ā-re,	to put to flight,	"	fug-a,	flight.
pūgn-ō,	ā-re,	to fight,	66	pūgn-a,	battle.
bell-ō,	ā-re,	to carry on war,	"	bell-um,	war.
dōn-ō,	ã-re,	to give,	"	dōn-um,	gift.
firm-ö,	ā-re,	to make firm,	"	firm-us,	firm.
labor-o,	ā-re,	to labor,	•6	labor,	labor.
līber-ō,	ā-re,	to liberate,	"	līber,	free.
nōmin-ō,	ā-re,	to name.	66	nomen,	name.
alb-eō,	ē-re,	to be white,	"	alb-us,	white.
clar-ō,	ā-re,	to make bright,	"	clār-us,	bright.
clār-eō,	ē-re,	to be bright,	"	"	
flor-eo,	ē-re,	to bloom,	66	flös,	flower.
lūc-eō,	ē-re,	to shine,	66	lūx=lūc-s,	light.
met-uō.	ue-re,	to fear,	46	met-us,	fear.
stat-uō,	ue-re.	to place,	"	stat-us,	position.
fīn-iō,	ī-re,	to finish,	"	fīn-is.	end.
moll-īō,	ī-re,	to soften,	66	moll-is,	soft.
vest-iō.	ī-re,	to clothe.	"	vest-is,	garment.
serv-iō,	ī-re,	to serve.	"	serv-us,	servant.
cūstōd-iō,	ī-re,	to guard,	"	cūstōs,	guardian

NOTE 1.—Denominatives of the second conjugation are intransitive, but most of the others are transitive.

NOTE 2.—Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: dominor, \$\displair_i\$, 'to domineer,' from dominus, 'master'; \$\mathrice{m}iror\$, \$\alpha r\ilde{t}\$,' to wonder at,' from \$mirus\$, 'wonderful'; \$partior\$, \$ir\ilde{t}\$,' do part,' 'divide,' from \$pars\$, \$partis\$, 'part.'

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Culp-āre, 'to find fault,' from culp-a, 'fault'; glōri-ārī, 'to boast,' 'glory,' from glōri-a, 'glory'; nov-āre, 'to make new,' from novus, 'new'; rēgn-āre, 'to reign,' from rēgnum, 'royal power'; lev-āre, 'to lighten,' from levis, 'light'; honōr-āre, 'to honor,' from honor, 'honor'; laud-āre, 'to praise,' from laus = laud-s, 'praise'; saev-īre, 'to be fierce,' from saevus, 'fierce.'

the root of i-re, 'to go.' This suffix added to a, the original stem-vowei of most nouns and adjectives, formed a-ja, still preserved in the ending ajā-mi in a large class of Sanskrit verbs. From this compound suffix aja are derived in Latin, in the first conjugation, (1) $a\bar{o}$, contracted to \bar{o} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{o} = $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{j}\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{j}\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{j}\bar{o}$; (2) \bar{a} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{a} -s. shortened to a in $c\bar{u}r$ -a-t for $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{a} -t;—in the second conjugation, (1) $e\bar{o}$: $t\bar{u}c$ - $e\bar{o}$ for $i\bar{u}c$ ejo for lūc-aja; (2) ē: lūc-ē-s, shortened to e in lūc-e-t for lūc-ē-t; and in the fourth conjugation, (1) io and iu: serv-io for serv-ijo for serv-aja, serv-iu-nt for serv-iju-nt for serv-aju-nt; and (2) i: serv-i-s, shortened to i in serv-i-t for serv-i-t; see Bopp, I., pp. 207-229; Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 292, 326-348; Schleicher, pp. 358-861. For an ohjection to this explanation of the a-verbs, see Corssen, II., pp. 783-786.—On final ō of the first person, see 247, 1, foot-note 5.—The suffix ja, added to original *i-stems*, formed ijaand gave rise to i-verbs: finio = fin-i-jo = fin-ija; and added to u-stems, it formed u-ja and gave rise to u-verbs: met- $u\bar{o} = met$ -u- $j\bar{o} = met$ -u-ja.—In general, a-stems give rise to a-verbs: cur-a, cur-a-re; o-stems, sometimes to a-verbs, sometimes to e-verbs, and sometimes to i-rerbs: firmus, stem firmo, firm-a-re; albus, stem alb-o, alb-è-re; servus, stem serv-o, serv-i-re; consonant stems, to a-rerbs, e-verbs, or i-verbs, after the analogy of vowel stems: lubor for labor, lubor-a-re; flos, flor-è-re for flos-è-re (31, 1): cūstos, stem cūstod, cūstod-i-re.

II. VERBS FROM VERBS. 1

- **336.** FREQUENTATIVES OF INTENSIVES denote repeated, continued, or intense action. They are generally of the first conjugation, and are formed—
 - I. From the stem of the participle 2 in tus or sus:

```
are, to sing,
                                     from cantus
                                                        from cano,
                                                                        to sing.3
cant-ő.
          are, to snatch,
                                                               capio,
                                                                        to take.
capt-o,
                                            captus
                                       "
                                                          "
          are, to give often,
                                                                        to give.
dat-ō.
                                            datus
                                                               dō,
                                                          "
habit-ō, are, to inhabit, quass-ō, are, to shake violently,
                                       "
                                                               habeo, to have.
                                            habitus
                                       "
                                                          "
                                            quassus
                                                               quatio, to shake.
                                       "
territ-ō, are, to frighten often,
                                            territus
                                                               terreo, to frighten.
```

II. From the present stem, by adding to and changing the preceding vowel to i, if not already in that form: 4

agi-tő,	āre,	to shake,	from	agō,	to move, lead.
clami-tō,	ãre,	to shout often,	"	clāmō,	to shout.
rogi-tō,	āre,	to ask eagerly,	"	rogō,	to ask.
voci-tō,	āre,	to call often,	"	vocō,	to call.
voli-tō,	āre,	to flit about,	"	volō,	to fly.

Note 1.—Frequentatives are sometimes formed from other frequentatives: 5 cantitō, 'to sing often,' from cantō from canō; dictitō, 'to say often,' from dictō from diccō.

Note 2.—A few derivatives in \$\tilde{e}sso\$ and \$isso\$ also occur. They are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of the third conjugation: facio, facesso, 'to do earnestly'; incipio, incipisso, 'to begin eagerly.'

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Dictō, 'to say often,' from dīcō, 'to say'; spectō, 'to behold,' from speciō, 'to look at'; factitō, 'to do often,' from faciō, 'to do,' 'make'; imperitō, 'to command often,' from imperō, 'to command'; raptō, 'to snatch,' from rapiō, 'to seize.'

337. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in sco:

¹ Either directly or through the medium of nouns, adjectives, or participles.

² They are thus strictly denominatives (335). Intransitive verbs, though without the participle in tus or sus, may form frequentatives after the analogy of transitive verbs: curso, dre, 'to run about,' formed as if from cursus from curro, 'to run'; ventite, 'tre, 'to come often,' formed as if from ventus, from rento, 'to come.'

³ Remember that the stem of the participle ends in o; thus cantus = canto-s. Observe, therefore, that the verb canto, 'I sing,' is in form like the stem of the participle. Canto was, however, originally produced by adding ju to canta, the original stem of cantus, making canta-ju, cantajo, cantajo, cantajo, cantajo, cantajo, canto; see also 335, foot-note.

4 The formation from the participle was doubtless the original method, but at length to was regarded as the suffix, and was accordingly added to present stems, and as in many cases i preceded, the stem-vowel finally took this form before the suffix to; see Corsen, H. p. 297.

⁵ Sometimes from frequentatives no longer in use: āctitō, 'to act often,' as if from āctō, not in use, from agō; scriptitō, 'to write often,' as if from scriptō, not in use, from scriptō.

gel-ā-scō,	to begin to freeze,	from	gel-ő,	ā-re,	to freeze.
cal-ē-scō,	to become warm,	46	cal-eō,	ē-re,	to be warm.
rub-ē-scō,	to grow red,	"	rub-eō,	ē-re,	to be red.
vir-ē-scō,	to grow green,	"	vir-eō,	ē-re,	to be green.
trem-ī-scō,	to begin to tremble,	"	trem-ō,	e-re,	to tremble.
obdorm-ī-scō,	to fall asleep,	44	obdorm-iō,	ĩ-re,	to sleep.

338. DESIDERATIVES denote a desire to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation, and end in turio or surio:

par-turiō, Ire, to strive to bring forth, from pariō, to bring forth. ē-suriō, Ire, to desire to eat, "edō, to eat.

339. DIMINUTIVES denote a *feeble* action.² They are of the first conjugation, and end in **illo**:

cant-illō, to sing feebly, from cantō, to sing. conscrib-illō, to scribble, "conscribō, to write.

NOTE.—For the DERIVATION OF ADVERBS, see 304.

SECTION III.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

340. New words may be formed-

I. By the union of two or more words under one principal accent, without change of meaning:

Res publica, respublica, republic; agrī cultūra, agrīcultūra, agriculture; jūris consultus, jūris consultus, lawyer, one skilled in the law; quem ad modum, quemadmodum, in what way—lit., to what measure.

Note.—These are compounds only in form. The separate words retain in a great measure their identity both in form and in meaning, and may in fact be written separately. Res pūblica is the approved form. Other examples of this class are: legis-lātor, law-giver; pater-familiās, father of a family; senātūs-cōnsultum, decree of the senate; hāc-tenus, thus far; saepe-numerō, often in number; bene-faciō, to do well, benefit; male-diō, to revile; satis-faciō, to satisfy, do enough for; animum-ad-vertō, anim-ad-vertō, to notice, turn the mind to.

II. By prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word, generally with some change of meaning:

Ad-sum, to be present; dē-pōnō, to lay down; re-pōnō, to replace; è-discō, to learn by heart; im-memor, unmindful; per-facilis, very easy; prō-cōnsul,

¹ These are the only desideratives in common use, but a few others occur: $c\bar{e}n\bar{d}$ -turio, 'to desire to dine,' from $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, 'to dine'; $\bar{e}mp$ -turio, 'to desire to purchase'; $n\bar{u}p$ -turio, 'to desire to marry,' from $n\bar{u}b\bar{o}$, 'to marry.' They were probably formed originally through the medium of a verbal noun in tor or sor (326, foot-note 2): thus, $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$. $c\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -tor, 'one who dines'; $c\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -tor- \bar{i} -re = $c\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -tur- \bar{i} -re (o changed to u), 'to desire to dine'; $em\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}mp$ -tor, 'a purchaser'; $\bar{e}mp$ -tor- \bar{i} -re = $\bar{e}mp$ -tur- \bar{i} -re, 'to desire to purchase.'

² Probably denominatives formed from verb-stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

proconsul, one acting for a consul; inter-regnum, interregnum, an interval between two reigns.

III. By uniting two or more simple stems or roots, and adding appropriate inflectional suffixes when needed:

Igni-color, fire-colored; grandi-aevo-s, grand-aevus, a, um, of great age; omni-potent-s, omnipotens, omnipotent; māgno-animo-s, māgnanimus, a, um, great-souled; tubi-cen, trumpeter; arti-fec-s, artifex, artificer; alio-quī, aliquis, any one.

- 1. In the first element of the compound observe-
- 1) That the stem-vowel generally takes the for_ of i: capro-corno-s, capri-cornus; tuba-cen, tubi-cen.
- 2) That consonant stems sometimes assume i: honor-i-fico-s, honorificus, a, um, honorable.
- 3) That the stem-vowel disappears before another vowel: māgno-animus, māgnanimus.
- 2. The stem-ending and the inflectional ending of the second element generally remain unchanged in the compound; see examples above. But observe—
- 1) That they are sometimes slightly changed: aequo-nocti, aequi-noctio-m,3 aequinoctium, equinox; multa-forma, multi-formis, with many forms.
- 2) That a verbal root or stem may be the second element in a compound noun or adjective: tubi-cen (cen = can, the root of $can\delta$, to sing), trumpeter; $l \neq ti-fer$ (fer, root of $fer\delta$, to bear), death-bearing.

Note.—The words classed under II. and III. are regarded as real compounds, but those under III. best illustrate the distinctive characteristics of genuine compounds, as they are formed from compound stems and have a meaning which could not be expressed by the separate words. Thus, magnus animus means a great soul, but magnanimus means having a great soul.

341. In Compound Nouns, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second part is the stem of a noun, or a stem from a verbal root:

arti-fex,	artist,	from	arti-fac	in	ars	and	fació.
capri-cornus,	capricorn,	"	capro-cornu	"	caper	"	cornū.
aequi-noctium,	equinox,	"	aequo-nocti	"	aequus	"	nox.
nē-mŏ,	nobody,	"	ne-homon	"	ně	"	homő.
prō-nōmen,	pronoun,	"	prō-nōmen	"	prō	"	nomen.

- ¹ Thus ***fgni-color* is formed by the union of two stems without inflectional suffix; but in *grand-aevu-s*, the suffix *s is added to the stem *grandaevo*, compounded of *grandaevo*, and *aevo*.
 - 2 Literally, any other one.
 - ² Ti, the stem-ending of nor, becomes $ti\delta$, to which is added the nominative-ending m.
- 4 Class II. occupies a position intermediate between I. and IIi. Some compounds of particles with verbs, for example, have developed a meaning quite distinct from that denoted by the separate parts, while others have simply retained the ordinary meaning of those parts.

1. Compounds in ex, dex, fex, cen, cIda, and cola deserve special notice:

Remo-ex, remex, oarsman; jūs-dex, jūdex, judge; arti-fex, artist; tībia-cen, tībī-cen, fute-player; homon-cīda, homi-cīda, manslayer; agri-cola, husbandman, one who tills the soil.

Note.—Ex (for ag-s) is from the root ag in ago, to drive, impel; dex (for dic-s), from dic in dico, to make known; fex (for fac-s), from fac in facio, to make; cen, from can in cano, to sing; cida (for caed-a), from caed in caedo, to cut, slay; cola (for col-a), from col in colo, to cultivate.

342. In Compound Adjectives, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second is the stem of a noun or adjective, or a stem from a verbal root:

lēti-fer, death-bearing, from lēti-fer in lētum and ferō.
māgn-animus, magnanimous, "māgno-animo" māgnus "animus.
per-facilis, very easy, "per-facili" per "facilis.

1. Compounds in ceps, fer, ger, dicus, ficus, and volus deserve notice:

Parti-ceps, taking part; auri-fer, gold-bearing; armi-ger, carrying arms; fāti-dicus, predicting fate; mīri-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.

Note.—Ceps (for cap-s) is from the root cap in capio, to take; fer, from fer in fero, to bear; ger, from ger in gero, to carry; dicus (for dic-o-s), from dic in dico, to make known; ficus (for fac-o-s), from fac in facio, to make; volus (for vol-o-s), from vol in volo, to wish.

- 343. Compound Nouns and Adjectives are divided according to signification into three classes:
- I. DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is qualified by the first:

Inter-rex, interrex; meri-dies, midday; bene-volus, well-wishing; permagnus, very great; in-dignus, unworthy.

II. OBJECTIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is limited by the first as object:

Prīn-ceps, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; jū-dex, judge, one who dispenses (makes known) justice; homi-cīda, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field. See other examples in 342, 1.

III. Possessive Compounds, in origin mostly adjectives. They design

¹ O is dropped in remex, and s in judex; see 27; 36, 3, note 8.

² A, weakened to i, unites with the preceding i, forming i.

³ N dropped, and o weakened to i: see 36, 8, note 8.

⁴ The stem-vowel o of agro is weakened to i: agri; see 22

From medius and dies.

nate qualities or attributes as possessed by some person or thing, and are often best rendered by supplying having or possessing:

Aoni-pēs, having bronze feet; 1 celeri-pēs, swift-footed; āli-pēs, wing-footed, having wings for feet; māgn-animus, having a great soul; ūn-animus, having one mind; long-aevus, of great age, having a long life.

- 344. COMPOUND VERBS.—Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs: 2
- . Ab-eō, to go away; ex-eō, to go out; prōd-eō, to go forth; con-vocō, to call together; dē-cidō, to fall off; prae-dōcō, to foretell; re-dūcō, to lead back; re-ficiō, to repair, to make anew.3
 - 1. Facio and fio may also unite with verbal stems in e:

Cale-faciō, to make warm; cale-fāō, to be made warm, become warm; lābe-faciō, to cause to totter; pate-faciō, to open, cause to be open.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds:

Manū mitto or manū-mitto, to emancipate, let go from the hand; satis facio or satis-facio, to satisfy, do enough for; animum ad-verto or anim-ad verto, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in ficō and factō, like the following, are best explained not as compounds but as denominatives: 4

Aedi-fico, to build, from aedifex; ampli-fico,4 to enlarge; cale-facto, to make warm, from cale-factus.

- 4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-changes:
- 1) Short a and e generally become i: habeo, ad-hibeo; teneo, con-tineo. But a sometimes becomes e or u: carpo, dé-cerpo; calco, con-culco.
 - 2) Ae becomes i: caedo, in-cido.
 - 3) Au generally becomes ō or ū: plaudō, ex-plōdō; claudō, in-clūdō.
- 5. FORM AND MEANING OF PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.—The following facts are added for reference:
- **A**, **ab**, **abs**.—1. Form: \bar{a} before m and v, and sometimes before f; abe before c, q, t, and, with the loss of b, also before $p \circ ;$ au in au- $fer\bar{o}$ and au- $fuqi\bar{o}$; ab before the other consonants, and before vowels.—2. Meaning: (1) 'away,' 'off': \bar{a} - $mitt\bar{o}$, to send away; ab- $cond\bar{o}$, to hide away; as- $port\bar{o}$.

¹ Observe the force of the compound. Aenus pes means a brazen foot, but aeni-pes means having brazen feet; see also 340, III., note.

² The words thus formed are strictly compounds of verbs with adverbs, as the original type of these compounds was formed before the adverb became a preposition.

³ Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles ab, ex, etc., away, out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliar; to the case-endings: see 307, foot-note.

⁴ in some of these the primitive is not found in actual use

[·] As abs-pello, as-pello. to drive away.

to carry off; au- $fugi\bar{o}$, to flee away; ab-sum, to be away; ab- $e\bar{o}$, to go away, ab- $jici\bar{o}$ or ab- $ici\bar{o}$, to throw away; (2) in adjectives, generally negative: \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}ns$, without mind, frantic; ab-similis, unlike.

Ante.—1. Form: unchanged except in anti-cipō, 'to take beforehand,' and in composition with stō: ante-stō or anti-stō, to stand before.—2. Meaning: 'before,' 'beforehand': ante-currō, to run before; ante-habeō, to prefer—lit., to have or hold before.

Circum.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but m is sometimes dropped in compounds of $e\bar{o}$, to go: $circum-e\bar{o}$ or $circu-e\bar{o}$, to go around.—2. Meanine: 'around,' 'about': $circum-mitt\bar{o}$, to send around.

Com.3—1. Form: com before b, m, p; co before vowels, 4 h, and gn, 5 con or col before l; cor before r; con before the other consonants.—2. Meaning: (1) 'together,' 'with,' in various senses: com-bibo, to drink together; com-mittō, to let go together; co-eō, to go together; col-loquor, to talk with; con-fligō, to contend with; (2) 'completely,' 'thoroughly': con-sûmō, to conplete, make completely; con-citō, to rouse thoroughly; con-sûmō, to consume, take wholly; con-dēnsus, very dense.

E, ex.—1. FORM: ex before vowels and before c, h, p, q, s, t, and with assimilation before f; s & before the other consonants.—2. Meaning: (1) 'out,' 'forth,' 'without,' implying 'freedom from': ex-eo, to go out, go forth; ex-codo, to fall out; &-do, to put forth; ex-sanguis, without blood, bloodless; ex-coneo, to unload, disburden; (2) 'thoroughly,' 'completely,' 'successfully': ex-aro, to burn up; &-disco, to learn by heart; ef-ficio, to effect, do successfully; &-dūrus, very hard.

In.—1. Form: n sometimes assimilated before l_i , often before m^{10} and r_i

- 1 See foot-note 1, p. 20.
- 2 Sometimes retained: ad-gnosco or a-gnosco; ad-sto or a-sto.
- 3 An earlier form for cum.
- 4 A contraction often takes place: co-agō, cō-gō. Com is sometimes retained before e or i, and co or con is used before i = ji: com-edō, com-itor, co-iciō or con-iciō = con-iciō or con-jiciō; see foot-note 1, p. 20.
 - Cō aiso appears in cō-nectō, cō-nīveō, cō-nītor, and cō-nūbium.
 - But ē-pōto and ē-pōtus; ex-scendo or ē-scendo.
 - * S is sometimes dropped after x: exspecto or ex-pecto.
 - C before f is not recommended; affern is better than ec-fero.
 - 9 But ex-lex.
- 10 Im is the approved form before h.n. and sa especially in im-perûtor, im-pero, and im-perium.

often changed to m before b and p; in other situations unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'in;' 'into,' 'on,' 'at,' 'against': in-colo, to dwell in; in-eo, to go into; im-migro, to move into; in-nitor, to lean on; in-tueor, to look at; ir-rideo, to laugh at; im-pugno, to fight against.

Inter.—1. FORM: unchanged, except in intel-lego, to understand.—2. MRANING: 'between,' sometimes involving interruption,' 'together': intervenio, to come between, intervene; inter-dico, to forbid, interdict; internecto. to tie together.

Ob.—1. FORM: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p; dropped in o-mittā, to omit, and in operiō, to cover; in other situations generally unchanged.²—2. Meanine: (1) 'before,' 'in the way,' 'toward,' 'against,' especially of an obstruction or opposition: cf-ferō, to bring before; ob-stō, to stand in the way; oo-currō, to run toward, run to meet; op-pūgnō, to attack, fight against; (2) 'down,' 'completely': oc-cīdō, to cut down, kill; op-primō, to press down, to overwhelm.

Per.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but r is sometimes assimilated before l_i ³ and is dropped before j in compounds of $j\bar{u}r\bar{v}$, as $p\bar{e}$ - $jer\bar{v}$, to swear falsely.—2. Meaning: 'through,' 'thoroughly,' sometimes in a bad sense with the idea of breaking through, disregarding: per-lego, to read through; per-disco, to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.

Post.—1. Form: unchanged, except in pō-mērium, the open space on either side of the city-wall, and pos-merīdiānus, of the afternoon.—2. Meanine: 'after,' behind': post-habeō, to place after, have after, esteem less.

Prō, prōd.—1. Form: prō is the usual form, both before vowels and before consonants; prōd, the original form, is retained in a few words before vowels. —2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'before,' 'for': prōd-eō, to go forth or forward; prō-currō, to run forward; prō-pūgnō, to fight in front of, fight for; pro-hibeō, to hold aloof, i. e., out of one's reach, hence to prohibit; prō-mittō, to send forth, to hold out as a promise, to promise.

Sub.—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p, and often before m and r; dropped before sp; in other situations unchanged. The form subs. shortened to sus, occurs in a few words: sus-cipio, sus-pendo.—2. Meaning: 'under,' 'down,' 'from under,' 'up'; 'in place of,' 'secretly'; 'somewhat. 'slightly': sub-eo, to go under; sub-labor, to slip down; sub-duco, to draw from under, withdraw; sus-cipio, to undertake; sus-cito, to lift up, arouse;

It is used in several compounds referring to death: inter-eo, to die; inter-ficio to kill.

² Obs seems to occur in a few words; obs-olesco, os-tendo for obs-tendo (b dropped) though these words are sometimes otherwise explained; thus ob-solesco, as a compound of solesco from soleo.

³ As per-lego, pel-lego; per-licio, pel-licio; but per is preferable.

⁴ For per-juro.

⁸ Post-meridianus is also used; po-meridianus is not approved, though it occurs

As in prêd-eo, prêd-igo, prêd-igus, and before e in the compound of sum: prêdest, etc.

⁷ Mostly in adjectives: sub-absurdus, somewhat absurd: sub-dolus, somewhat crafty sub-impudens, somewhat impudent; sub-impuses, somewhat odious

sub-stituo, to put in place of, to substitute; sub-ripio, to take away secretly, sub-rideo, to smile, laugh slightly; sub-difficilis, somewhat difficult.

Trāns.—1. Form: it generally drops s before s, and it often drops m before d, j, l, m, n; it is otherwise unchanged.—2. Meanine: 'across,' 'through,' 'completely': $tr\bar{a}ns-curr\bar{o}$, to run across; $tr\bar{a}-d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, to lead across; $tr\bar{a}n-sili\bar{o}$, to leap across; $tr\bar{a}ns-ig\bar{o}$, to transact; to finish, do completely or thoroughly—lit., to drive through.

3. FORM AND MEANING OF THE INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS.—The following facts are added for reference:

Ambi, amb.2—1. FORM: amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an,3 before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'on both sides,' 'in two directions': $amb-i\bar{o}$,4 to go round; $amb-ig\bar{o}$, to act in two ways, move in different directions, to hesitate; $am-put\bar{o}$, to cut around or off; $an-qu\bar{v}\bar{o}$, to search round.

Dis, dī.—1. Form: dis before, p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and, with assimilation, before f; but dir for dis before a vowel or h; di in most other situations; but both dis and di occur before $j.^s$ —2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'asunder,'s 'between,' sometimes negative? and sometimes intensive: $dirtine\delta$, to lold apart; $d\bar{i}-d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, to lead apart, divide; $dif-fugi\delta$, to flee asunder, or in different directions; $dir-im\delta$, to take in pieces, destroy; $dis-senti\delta$, to think differently, dissent; $d\bar{i}-fudic\delta$, to judge between; $dis-plice\delta$, to displease, not to please; dif-ficilis, difficult, not easy; $d\bar{i}-laud\delta$, to praise highly.

In.—1. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in.—2. Meaning: 'not,' 'un': i- $gn\delta sc\bar{o}$, not to know, not to recollect, to pardon; im-memor, unmindful; in-imicus, unfriendly.

Por, for port.8—1. Form: r assimilated before l and s; in other situations, por.—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'near': pol-liceor, to hold forth, offer, promise; pos-sideō, to possess; por-rigō, to hold out or forth, to offer.

Red, re.-1. Form: red before vowels, before h, and in red-dō; re in other situations.—2. Meaning: 'back,' 'again,' 'in return': 10 red-eō, to go back; re-ficiō, to repair, make again; red-amō, to love in return.

Sēd, 11 sē.—1. Form: sēd before vowels; sē before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'aside': sē-cēdō, to go apart, secede; sē-pōnō, to put aside or apart.

NOTE.—For the Composition of Adverbs, see 304, I., 2; 304, II., 1, note; 304, IV., note 2.

Or before i = j or ji; see foot-note 1, p. 20.

² Compare ambo, both, and audi, around, on both sides.

³ An before c, q, f, and t.

[·] For amb-eo.

⁶ Dis-jungo, dī-jūdico.

⁶ Both literally 'apart' in respect to place or position, and figuratively 'apart' in entiment or opinion.

⁷ Especially in adjectives: dis-pur, unequal; dis-similis, unlike.

⁶ Greek πορτί, προτί, πρός, to, toward; see Curtius, 381.

[&]quot; To sit near and so to control.

¹⁰ Sometimes negative, not, un-: re-sīgnō, to unseal; re-clādō, to open

¹¹ Probably an old ablative of sui and identical with sed, but.

PART THIRD.

SYNTAX

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

845. SYNTAX treats of the construction of sentences.

346. A sentence is a combination of words expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.

347. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses a single thought:

Deus mundum aedificăvit, God made (built) the world. Cic.

348. A COMPLEX SENTENCE expresses one leading thought with one or more dependent thoughts:

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amicos, so long as you shall be prosperous, you will number many friends. ()vid.

NOTE 1.—In this example two simple sentences—(1) 'you will be prosperous,' and (2) 'you will number many friends'—are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you shall be prosperous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

NOTE 2.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself-multis numerables am is—is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it—dônec eris fêlix—is called the Subordinate or De pendent Clause.

349. A COMPOUND SENTENCE expresses two or more independent thoughts:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the moun tains are shaded. Verg.

350. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE has the form of an assertion: Miltiades accusatus est, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

351. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis loquitur, who speaks? Ter. Quis non paupertatem extimescit, who does not fear poverty? Cic. Quid nis, what do you say? Ter. Ec-

quid¹ animadvertis silentium, do you not notice the silence? Cic. Qualis est oratio, what kind of an oration is it? Cic. Quot sunt, how many are there? Plaut. Ubi sunt, where are they? Cic. Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Cic. Visne fortunam experiri meam, do you wish to try my fortune? Cic. Nonne nobilitări volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Cic. Num igitur peccămus, are we then at fault? Cic.

1. Interrogative Words.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles: 2 -ne, nonne, num; see examples above.

Note 1.—Questions with -ne ask for information: Scribitne, 'is he writing?' Ne is sometimes appended to utrum, num, or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum:

Numne ferre arma debuerunt, ought they to have borne arms? Cic. Utrum taceamne, an praedicem, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 2.—Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nonne scribit, 'is he not writing?'

Note 3.—Questions with num expect the answer no: Num scribit, 'is he writing?' Note 4.—For questions with an, see 353, note 4.

2. The particle -ne is always appended to some other word, generally to the emphatic word of the sentence, i. e., to the word upon which the question especially turns; appended to $n\bar{o}n$, it forms $n\bar{o}nne$:

Visne experiri, do you wish to try? Cic. Tüne id veritus es, did you fear this? Cic. Omnisne pecunia soluta est, has all the money been paid? Cic. Hōcinest (= hōcine est') officium patris, is this the duty of a father? Ter. Unquamne vidistihare you ever seen? Cic. Nōnne volunt, do they not wish? Cic.

3. Sometimes no interrogative word is used, especially in impassioned discourse:

Crēditis, do you believe! Verg. Ego non potero, shall I not be able! Cic.

4. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, often occurs in interrogative sentences:

Quod genus tandem est istud gloriae, what kind of glory is that, pray! Cic.

Note 1 .- Nam, appended to an interrogative, also adds emphasis:

Numnam haec audivit, did he hear this, pray? Ter.

Note 2.—For Two Interrogatives in the same clause, and for an Interrogative with tantus, see 454, 3 and 4.

352. Answers.—Instead of replying to a question of fact with a simple particle meaning yes or no, the Latin usually repeats the verb or some emphatic word, often with $pr\bar{o}rsus$, $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, and the like, or if negative, with $n\bar{o}n$:

Dīxitne causam, did he state the cause? Dīxit, he stated it. Cio. Possumusne tūtī esse, can we be safe? Non possumus, we can not. Cic.

¹ Ecquid, though the neuter accusative of an interrogative pronoun, has become in effect a mere particle with the force of nonne.

² See 311, 8, foot-note.

³ See 27, note.

Note 1.—Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, ednė, etiam, ita, vėrą vertė, etc.; negatively, non, minimė, etc.

Vēnitne, has he come? Non, no Plant.

Note 2.—Sometimes, without an actual repetition of the emphatic word, some equivalent expression is used:

Tuam vestem détraxit tibl, did he strip off your coat? Factum, he did-lit., done for it was done. Ter.

353. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alter native, and generally take one of the following forms:

1. The first clause has utrum or -ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Cic. Tomamne venio an hic maneo, do I go to Rome, or do I remain here? Cic.

2. The first clause omits the particle, and the second has an, or anne:

Éloquar an sileam, shall I utter it, or keep silence? Verg. Gabīniō dicam anne Pompēiō, to Gabinius, shall I say, or to Pompey? Cic.

Note 1 .- Other forms are rare.1

Note 2.—Utrum sometimes stands before a disjunctive question with -ns in the first plause and an in the second:

Utrum, taceamne, an praedicem, which, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 3.—When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the

negative, giving annon or necne:
Sunt hace tua verba necne, are these your words or not? Cic.

Note 4.—By the omission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of or, implying a negative answer:

An hốc timemus, or do we fear this? Liv.

Note 5.—Disjunctive questions sometimes have three or more members; 2

Gabinio anne Pompeio an utrique, to Gabinius, or Pompey, or both? Cic.

Note 6.—Disjunctive questions inquire which alternative is true. These must be distinguished—

1) From such single questions as inquire whether either alternative is true:

Solem dicam aut lunam deum, shall I call the sun or the moon a god ? & Cic.

2) From two separate questions, introduced respectively by num, implying a negative answer, and by an, implying an affirmative answer:

Num furis? an iudis me? are you mad? or do you not rather mock me? Hor.

354. An IMPERATIVE SENTENCE has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Jüstitiam cole, cultivate justice. Cic.

355. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Reliquit quos viros, what men he has left ! Cic.

¹ Thus, in Vergii, -no occurs in both clauses, also -no in the first with sou in the second. In Horace, -no occurs in the second clause with no particle in the first.

² Cicero, in his cration $Pr\bar{o}$ $Dom\bar{o}$, xxii. 57, has a question of this kind extended to eight clauses, the first introduced by utrum and each of the others by an.

S Observe that in this sense aut, not an, is used.

NOTE 1.—Many sentences introduced by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs may be so spoken as to become exclamatory:

Quibus gaudiīs exsultābis, in what joys will you exult! Cic.

NOTE 2 .- Some declarative and imperative sentences readily become exclamatory.

Note 3.- Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

II. ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

- 356. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST SIMPLE FORM convists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
 - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks;
 - 2. The PREDICATE, or that which is said of the subject:

Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies.1 Liv.

357. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST EXPANDED FORM consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:

In his castris Cluilius, Albanus rex, moritur, Cluilius, the Alban king dies in this camp.² Liv.

- 1. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called the *Principal* or *Essential* elements; their modifiers, the *Subordinate* elements.
- 2. The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
 - 1) Simple, when not modified by other words; see 358.
 - 2) Complex, when thus modified; see 359.
- 358. The SIMPLE SUBJECT of a sentence must be a noun, a pronoun, or some word or words used as a noun:

Rex decrevit, the king decreed. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. Ibam, I was walking. Hor. Vicimus, we have conquered. Cic. Video idem valet, the word video has the same meaning. Quint.

359. The COMPLEX SUBJECT consists of the simple subject with its modifiers:

Populus Römānus dēcrēvit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Clulius rêx moritur, Cluilius the King dies. Liv. Rex Rutulörum, the king of the Rutuli. Liv. Liber de officies, the book on duties. Cic.

Note 1.- The subject is thus modified-

- 1) By an Adjective: Populus Romanus.
- 2) By a noun in apposition: Cluilius rea,
- 8) By a genitive: Rex Rutulorum.
- 4) By a noun with a preposition: Liber de officies,

¹ Here Cluilius is the subject, and moritur the predicate.

² Here Cluilius, Albānus rēx, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in his castrīs moritur is the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.

³ A pronominal subject is always contained or implied in the personal ending. Thus m in $iha \cdot m$ is a pronominal stem = ego, and is the true original subject of the verb. See also 247: 368.2, foot-note.

NOTE 2.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is called an Appositive; as Cluilius rex, 'Cluilius the king.'

Note 3 .- Any noun may be modified like the subject.

Note 4 .- Sometimes adverbs occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignārī sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg.

360. The SIMPLE PREDICATE must be either a verb, or the copula sum with a noun or adjective:

Miltlades est accusatus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tū es testis, you abf e witness. Cic. Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic.

Note 1.—Like sum, several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or an adjective to form the predicate; see 362, 2. A noun or an adjective thus used is called a *Predicate Noun* or *Predicate Adjective*.

Note 2.—Sum with an adverb sometimes forms the predicate:

Omnia recte sunt, all things are RIGHT. Cic.

361. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers:

Miltiades Athènas liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep. Labori student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mè rogavit sententiam, he asked me my opinion. Cie. Pons iter hostibus dedit, the bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv. Bella feliciter gessit, he waged wars nuccessfully. Cie. In his castris moritur, he dies (where?) in this camp. Liv Vère convênère, they assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

- 1. The Predicate, when a verb, is thus modified—
- 1) By an Accusative: Athenas liberavit.
- 2) By a DATIVE: Labori student.
- 3) By two Accusatives: Me rogavit sententiam.
- 4) By an Accusative and a Dative: Iter hostibus dedit.
- 5) By an Adverb: Fèliciter gessit.
- 6) By an Adverbial Phrase: In his castris moritur.

Note 1.—Still other modifiers occur with special predicates; see 406, 409, 410,

NOTE 2.—No one predicate admits all the modifiers here given. Thus only transitive verbs admit an Accusative (371); only intransitive verbs, a Dative alone (384, I.); and only special verbs, two Accusatives (374).

2. A PREDICATE Noun is modified like the subject:

Hace virtus omnium est regina virtutum, this virtue is the queen of all virtues. Cie. See also 359, notes 1 and 3.

- 3. A Predicate Adjective is modified-
- 1) By an Adverb: Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Liv.
- 2) By an Oblique Case: Avidī laudis fuërunt, they were desirous of praise Cic. Omnī aelātī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic.

Note.-Any adjective may be modified like the predicate adjective:

Eques Romanus satis litteratus, a Roman knight sufficiently literary. Cic.

CHAPTER IL

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

RULE I.—Predicate Nouns.1

362. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Brutus custos libertatis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty. Liv. Servius rea est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem so essedixit, he said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 360, note 1.

NOTE.—This rule applies also to nouns predicated of pronouns: • Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv.

1. A Predicate Noun with different forms for different genders must agree in GENDER as well as in CASE:

Ūsus magister b est, experience is an instructor. Cio. Historia est magistra b (not magister), history is an instructress. Cio.

- 2. PREDICATE NOUNS are most frequent with the following verbs:
- With sum and a few intransitive verbs—ēvādō, exsistō, appāreō, and the like:

Homb magnus evaserat, he had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit vindex libertatis, he became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

2) With Passive Verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteeming, and the like:

Servius rex est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Mundus civitas existimatur, the world is regarded as a state. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with $audi\bar{o}=appellor$:

Rêx audīsti, you have been called KING; i. e., have heard yourself so called. Hor. Ego divum incedo regina, I walk as queen of the gods. Verg.

- ² For convenience of reference, the Rules will be presented in a body on page 324.
- 2 For Predicate Genitive, see 401.
- ² In these examples *cūstôs*, *rēx*, and *Orestem* are all predicate nouns, and agree in case respectively with *Brūtus*, *Servius*, and *sē* (536).
 - 4 As all substantive pronouns have the construction of nouns; see 182.
- Observe that in ūsus magister est, the masculine form, magister, is used to agree in gender with ūsus; while in historia est magistra, the feminine form, magistra, it used to agree in gender with historia.

Note 2.- For Predicate Accusative, see 373, 1.

Note 3.—The Dative of the object for which (390), pro with the Ablative, and local in numero (or in numero) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns: hosti, pro hoste, local hostis, numero (or in numero) hostium, 'for an enemy,' or 'as an enemy':

Fuit omnibus bono, it was a benefit (lit., for a benefit) to all. Cic. Sicilis sobis pro aerario fuit, Sicily was a treasury (for a treasury) for us. Cic. Quaestori parentis loco fuit, he was a parent (lit., in the place of a parent) to the questor. Cic. Is tibl parentis numero fuit, he was a parent to you. Cic. See also Predicate Gentitive, 401.

3. PREDICATE NOUNS are used not only with finite verbs, but also with INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Declaratus rex Numa, Numa having been declared King. Liv. Caninio consule, Caninius being consul. Cic. See 431, also Orestem under the rule.

NOTE 1.—For a PREDICATE NOMINATIVE after the Infinitive esse, see 536, 2, 1).

NOTE 2.—For an Infinitive or a Clause instead of a Predicate Noun; see 539; 501.

RULE II.-Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies:

Cluflius rez moritur, Cluilius the King dies. Liv. Urbes Karthage atque Numantia, the cities Carthage and Numantia. Cic. Saguntum, foederatam civitatem, expugnavit, he took Saguntum, an allied town. Liv. See 359. note 2.

1. An Appositive with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case:

Clutlius $r \partial x_i$ Cluilius the king. Liv. Venus $r \partial g \bar{n} a_i$ Venus the queen. Hor.

2. An Appositive often agrees with the pronoun implied in the ending of the verb:

Hostis 2 hostem occidere volui, I, AN ENEMY, wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

- 3. Appositives are kindred in force—
- 1) Generally to RELATIVE clauses:

Cluilius rec, Cluilius (who was) the King. Liv.

2) Sometimes to other Subordinate clauses, 3 as Temporal, Concessive, etc.: Furius puer didicit, Furius learned when he was a boy of as a boy. Cic. Jūnius aedem dictātor dēdicāvit, Junius dedicated the temple when dictator. Liv.

4. By Synesis 4-a Construction according to Sense:

¹ See 362, 1, foot-note.

Mostis agrees with ego, implied in volu?, 'I wished': see 358, foot-note

³ This construction is sometimes called Adverbial Apposition.

⁴ See Figures of Speech, 636, IV., 4.

1) Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive of the pronoun implied in them:

Tua ipslus 1 amicitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõllus peccatum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

2) Locatives admit as an Appositive a Locative Ablative (411, 425), with or without a preposition:

Albae constitutunt in urbe opportuna, they halted at Alba, a convenient city. Cic. Corinth, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac.

5. CLAUSES.—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun:

Nos, id³ quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought. Cic. Omnes interfict jussit, munimentum³ ad praesens, he ordered them all to be put to death, a means of protection for the present. Tac. For clauses in apposition with nouns or pronouns, see 499, 3; 501, III.

364. Partitive Apposition.—The parts may be in apposition with the whole, or the whole in apposition with the parts:

Duo reges, ille bello, hio pace, civitatem auxerunt, two kings advanced the state, the former by war, the latter by peace. Liv. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, reges 4 Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt. Liv.

SECTION II.

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES.

365. Cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

I.	Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
Π.	Vocative,	Case of Address.
III.	Accusative,	Case of Direct Object.
IV.	Dative,	Case of Indirect Object.
V.	Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
	Ablative,	Case of Adverbial Relations. ⁶

¹ Ipsius agrees with tui (of you) involved in tua; solius and absentis, with mei involved in moum. The Genitive of ipse, solus, unus, and omnis is often thus used.

² As a Locative Ablative is a genuine Locative in sense, there is no special irregularity here, and in urbe opportūnā may be explained as a separate modifier of the verb: 'They halted at Alba, at a convenient city.' Thus explained, it is not an appositive at all.

³ Id quod debet, lit., that which it oves. Id and mūnīmentum are in apposition respectively with nos delectat and omnes interfici, and are best explained as Accusatives. A Nominative apparently in apposition with a clause is generally best explained either as an appositive to some Nominative, or as the subject of a separate clause.

In the first example, ille and hie, the parts, are in apposition with reges, the whole; but in the second example, reges, the whole, is in apposition with the parts, Ptolemaeus and Cleopatra.

⁵ This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the eases, because, it is thought it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.

366. The *Nominative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, *Accusative*, and *Vocative* have probably retained with very slight modifications their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived.

367. The Ablative combines within itself the separate offices of three cases which were originally distinct:

- The Ablative proper, denoting the relation from—the place from which.
- 2. The Locative, denoting the relation in, AT—the place in or AT which.
- 3. The *Instrumental*, denoting the relation WITH, BY—the instrument or means WITH or BY which.

SECTION III.

NOMINATIVE.-VOCATIVE.

I. NOMINATIVE.

RULE III.-Subject Nominative.

368. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative:

Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Patent portae, the gates are open. Cie. Rēz vīcit, the king conquered. Liv. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cie.

- 1. The subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively; 4 see examples under the rule.
- A pronominal subject is always expressed or implied in the ending of the verb:⁵

^{. &}lt;sup>1</sup> That is, in the primitive Indo-European tongue, from which have been derived, either directly or indirectly, not only the Latin. Greek, and Sanskrit, but also the English, French, German, and indeed nearly all the languages of modern Europe. Upon the general subject of *Cases*, their original formation and meaning, see Bopp. 1., pp. 242-519; Merguet, pp. 17-117; Penka, Hübschmann, Holzweissig, Delbrück, and, among the earlier writers, Hartung, 'Ueber die Casus,' etc., and Rumpel, 'Casuslebre.'

² See Delbrück, 'Ablativ, Localis, instrumentalis,'

³ For the Subject of the Infinitive, see **536**. For the Agreement of the verb with its subject, see **460**.

⁴ For clauses used substantively, see 540.

See 247. Thus moneo means I (not you, he, or we, but I) instruct. Indeed, every verb contains a pronominal subject in itself, and in general it is necessary to add a separate subject only when it would otherwise be doubtful to whom the implied propoun refers. Thus regnarit, the reigned is complete of itself, if the context shows to

Discipulos moneō ut studia ament, I instruct pupils to love (that they may love) their studies. Quint. Non scholae, sed vitae discimus, we learn not for the school, but for life. Sen.

Note.—A separate pronominal subject may, however, be added for the sake of clearness, emphasis, or contrast, as in the fourth example under the rule.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially if it is est or sunt:

Ecce tuae litterae, lo your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, there are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul profectus (est), the consul set out. Liv.

Note 1.—The verb facio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Melius hi, quam vos, these have done better than you. Cic. Recte ille, he does rightly. Cic. Cotta finem, Cotta dosed, ilt., made an end. Cic. So also in Livy after nihil aliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, 'nothing other (more, less, etc.) than' = 'merely'; nihil praeterquam, 'nothing except' = 'merely': Nihil aliud quam stetcrunt, they merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv.

Note 2.—Certain forms of expression often dispense with the verb;

Quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergō, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid $pl\bar{u}ra$, why more, or why shall I say more? $n\bar{e}$ $pl\bar{u}ra$, not to say more; $n\bar{e}$ multa, not to say much; quid $h\bar{o}c$ ad $m\bar{e}$, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

Note 3 .- For the Predicate Nominative, see 362.

NOTE 4 .- For the Nominative as an Appositive, see 363.

NOTE 5 .- For the Nominative in Exclamations, see 381, note 3,

II. VOCATIVE.

RULE IV.-Case of Address.

369. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laelī, proceed, Laelius. Cic. Quid est, Catilīna, why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, the kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv Ō diī immortālēs, O immortal gods. Cic.

- 1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.
- 2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban People. Liv.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab öris exspectâte venis, from what shores, Hector, do you Anxiously awaited come? Verg. Macte nova virtûte, puer, a blessing on your new valor, boy (lit., be enlarged by; supply esto). Verg.

whom the pronoun he refers; if not, the noun must be added: Servius rēgnāvit, lit., he, Servius, reigned, or Servius, he reigned. In the fourth example under the rule, ego and vis, though already implied in the form of the verb. are expressed for emphasis. In impersonal verbs the subject 'it.' in English, is implied in the personal ending t.

1 See preceding foot-note.

SECTION IV.

ACCUSATIVE.

870. The Accusative is used '-

- I. As the Direct Object of an Action;
- II. In an Adverbial Sense-with or without Prepositions;
- III. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

Note 1 .- For the Predicate Accusative, see 362 and 373, 1.

Note 2.—For the Accusative in Apposition, see 363.

Note 8 .- For the Accusative with Prepositions, see 433.

NOTE 4 .- For the Accusative as the Subject of an Infinitive, see 536.

I. ACCUSATIVE AS DIRECT OBJECT.

RULE V .- Direct Object.

871. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Idberā rem pūblicam, free the republic. Cic. Populi Romānī salūtem dēfendite, defend the safety of the Roman people. Cic.

- I. The DIRECT OBJECT may be-
- 1. An External Object, the person or thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.
- 2. An Internal Object; i. e., one already contained or implied in the action itself. This embraces two varieties:
- 1) In a STRICT SENSE, the Cognate Accusative, an object having a meaning cognate or kindred to that of the verb:

Servitūtem servīre,2 to serve in bondage (lit., to serve a servitude). Ter.

2) In a freer sense, the Accusative of Effect, the object produced by the action:

Librum scribere, to write A BOOK. Cic.

Note.—Participles in dus, verbal adjectives in bundus, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vităbundus eastra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tibi hanc cūrātiost (cūrātiost) rem = cūr hanc rem cūrās, what care have you of this? Plaut.

¹ The Accusative is probably the oldest of all the oblique cases known to our family of languages, and was therefore originally the sole modifier of the verb, expressing in a vague and general way several relations now recognized as distinct. This theory secounts for the great variety of constructions in which the Accusative is used in Latin. See Curtius, 'Zur Chronologic,' pp. 71-74; Holzweissig, pp. 34-35.

² The pupil will observe that the idea of **errititlem*, 'servitude,' 'service,' is contained in the verb **erritie*, 'to serve,' 'to be a slave or servant.'

³ See 27, note.

II. The Cognate Accusative is generally—(1) a noun with an adjective or other modifier, or (2) a neuter pronoun or adjective. It is used quite freely both with *transitive* and with *intransitive* verbs, and sometimes even with verbs in the *passive* voice:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that LIFE. Cic. Mirum somniare somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plant. Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoc studet ûnum, he studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Perfidum ridens Venus, Venus smiling a perfidious smile. Hor. Id assentior, I assent to this (I give this assent). Cic. Idem gloriari, to make the same boast. Cic. Quid possunt, how powerful are they, or what power have they? Caes. Ea monemur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. Nihil moti sunt, they were not at all moved. Liv.

NOTE.—Here may be mentioned the following kindred constructions:

Vox hominem sonat, the voice sounds human. Verg. Saltare Cyclopa, to dance the Cyclops. Hor. Longam viam ire, to go a long way. Verg. Bellum pagnare, to fight a battle. Verg.

III. Special Verbs,—Many verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell, admit the Accusative:

Hondres desperat, he despairs of honors. Cic. Haec gemedant, they were sighing over these things. Cic. Detrimenta ridet, he laughs at losses. Hor. Olet unguenta, he has the odor of perfumes. Ter. Öratið redolet antiquitatem, the oration smacks of antiquity. Cic.

Note 1.—Such verbs are: $d\bar{e}sp\bar{e}r\bar{\nu}$, to despair of; $dole\bar{\nu}$, to grieve for; $gem\bar{\nu}$, to sigh over; $horre\bar{\nu}$, to shudder at; $lacrim\bar{\nu}$, to weep over; $maere\bar{\nu}$, to mourn over; $m\bar{\nu}ror$, to wonder at; $r\bar{\tau}de\bar{\nu}$, to laugh at; $sit\bar{\nu}$, to thirst for, etc.; $ole\bar{\nu}$, to have the odor of; $sapi\bar{\nu}$, to savor of, whether used literally or figuratively.³

Note 2.—Many verbs in Latin, as in English, are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive; see $auge\delta$, $d\bar{u}r\delta$, $incipi\delta$, $lax\delta$, $ru\delta$, $suppedit\delta$, $turb\delta$, etc., in the

Dictionary.

NOTE 3.—Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitive in Latin, and thus admit only an indirect object or some special construction; see 385.

Note 4.—The object of a transitive verb is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied: $move\bar{v} = move\bar{v} m\bar{e}$, 'I move (myself)'; $vertit = vertit s\bar{e}$, 'he turns (himself)':

Castrīs non movit, he did not move from his camp. Liv. Jam verterat fortūna. fortune had already changed. Liv.

NOTE 5 .- For the Passive Construction, see 464.

IV. An Infinitive or a CLAUSE may be used as Direct Object:

Imperare cupiunt, they desire to rule. Just. Opto ut id audiātis, I destre that you may hear this. Cic.

¹ Peccat, 'he makes a mistake'; idem peccat, 'he makes the same mistake.' where idem represents idem peccatum.

² Literally, we are admonished THESE THINGS, i. e., these admonitions.

³ Observe that with the Accusative dēspērō means not 'to despair,' but 'to despair of.' and is accordingly transitive; doleō, not 'to grieve,' but 'to grieve for,' etc. With some of the verbs here given the object is properly a Cognate Accusative.

372. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with *circum*, *per*, *praeter*, *trāns*, and *super*, take the Accusative:

Murinur contionem perväsit, a murmur went through the assembly. Liv. Rhènum tränsièrunt, they crossed (went across) the Rhine. Caes. Circumstant senātum, they stand around the senate. Cic. Hērēditātem obīre, to enter upon the inheritance. Cic. Eās nātionès adīre, to go to those nations. Caes. Undam innātāre, to float upon the wave. Verg. Tēla exīre, to avoid the weapons. Verg. Gallōs praecēdunt, they surpass the Gauls. Caes.

RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of Making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hamilcarem imperātōrem fēcērunt, they made Hamilcar commander. Nep. Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, the people elected Ancus king. Liv. Summum cōnsilium appellārunt Senātum, they called their highest council Senate. Cic. Sē praestitit prōpūgnātōrem lībertātis, he showed himself the champion of liberty. Cic. Flaccum habuit collēgam, he had Flaccus as colleague. Nep. Sōcratēs tōtīus mundī sē cīvem arbitrābātur, Socrates considered himself a citizen of the whole world. Cic.

1. Predicate Accusative.—One of the two Accusatives is the *Direct Object*, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a *Predicate Accusative*; see 362.

Note 1.—Habeō, 'to have,' admits two Accusatives, but when it means 'to regard.' it usually takes, instead of the Predicate Accusative, the Dative of the object for which (384), the Ablative with in or prō, or the Genitive with locō, numerō or in numerō: tādibrīō habēre, 'to regard as an object of ridicule'; prō hoste habēre, in hostibus habēre, locō hostium habēre, numerō or in numerō hostium habēre, to regard as an enemy.' These constructions also occur with other verbs meaning to regard:

Ea honori habent, they regard these things as an honor. Sail. Illum pro hoste habers, to regard him as an enemy. Cass. Jam pro facto habers, to regard it as already done. Cic. In hostium numero habuit, he regarded them as enemies (lit., in the number of, etc.). Cass. Me pro déridiculo putat, he regards me as an object of bidicule. Ter.

Note 2. - The Predicate Accusative is sometimes an adjective:

Homines caecen reddit avaritia, avarice renders men blind. Cic. Tempia decrums auncia habebat, he regarded the temples of the gods as backed. Nep.

2. In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives—a Subject and a Iredicate—corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius rêx est déclaratus, Servius was declared KING. Llv. See also 362, 2.

Observe that an intransitire verb may become transitire by being compounded with a preposition which does not take the Accusative.

RULE VII.-Two Accusatives-Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing*:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Philosophia nōs rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things. Cic. Auxilia rēgem ōrābant, they asked auxiliaries from the king. Liv. Pācem tē poscimus, we demand peace of you. Verg. Nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cic.

1. In the Passive the Person becomes the subject, and the Accusative of the thing is retained:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Artēs ēdoctus fuerat, he had been taught the arts. Liv.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with celo, doceo, edoceo; often with rogo, posco, reposco; sometimes with dedoceo, exposco, flagito, oro, etc., consulo, interrogo, percontor; rarely with moneo, admoneo, and postulo.

Note 1.— $C\bar{e}l\bar{b}$, 'to conceal,' takes—(1) in the Active generally two Accusatives, as under the rule, but sometimes the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with $d\bar{e}$; (2) in the Passive, the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or the Ablative with $d\bar{e}$:

Më để hốc librő cëlävit, he kept me ignorant of this book. Cic. Id celări, to be kept ignorant of this. Nep. Celări để cônsilio, to be kept ignorant of the plan. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Doceo and \$\ilde{e}doceo\$ generally follow the rule,\frac{1}{2} but sometimes they take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with or without \$d\tilde{e}_i^2\$ and sometimes the Accusative\(^3\) of the person with the Infinitive or a Subjunctive Clause:

De sua re me docet, he informs me in regard to his case. Cic. Litter's Graecis doctus, instructed in Greek Literature. Sall. Socratem fidibus 3 docuit, he taught Socrates (with) the Lyre. Cic. Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic.

Note 3.—Most verbs of asking and demanding sometimes take two Accusatives, but verbs of asking, questioning, generally take the Accusative of the person 4 and a the Ablative of the thing 4 with $d\hat{\epsilon}$, and verbs of imploring, demanding, generally the Accusative of the thing 4 and the Ablative of the person 4 with \hat{a} or ab:

Të his dë rëbus interrogë, I ask you in regard to these things. Cic. Victoriam ab dits exposeere, to implore victory from the gods. Caes. Id ab eë flagitare, to demand this from him. Caes.

¹ Other verbs of teaching— $\acute{e}rudi\bar{o}$, $\~insitiu\~o$, $\~inf\~orm\~o$, $\~instru\~o$, etc.—generally take the Ablative of the thing with or without a preposition, as $\acute{i}n$ or $d\~e$; see Dictionary.

² Doceo, in the sense of inform, takes de with the Abiative.

^{*} The Accusative may be omitted. With fidibus supply canere.

⁴ The Accusative or Ablative of the person is often omitted, and a clause often takes the place of the Accusative or Ablative of the thing. For examples and for special constructions, see, in the Dictionary, consulo, interrogo, rogo; also flagito, oro, posco, coposco, and reposco.

NOTE 4.—Peto and postulo generally take the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \tilde{a} or ab; quaero, the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \tilde{e} or a, a, a, or a.

Pacem ab Roman's peticrunt, they asked peace from the Romans. Caes. Aliquid ab amicis postulare, to demand something from friends. Cic. Quaerit ex sôló ea, etc.,

he asks of HIM IN PRIVATE (from him alone) those questions, etc. Caes.

375. A NEUTER PRONOUN or ADJECTIVE as a Cognate 2 Accusative occurs in connection with a Direct Object with many verbs which do not otherwise take two Accusatives:

Hốc tẽ hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cic. Eas non-mur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. So with velle, Caes., B. G. I., 34.

376. A few Compounds of trans, circum, and ad admit two Accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Ibèrum copias trajècit, he led his forces across the Ebro. Liv. Animum adverti columellam, I noticed (turned my mind to) a small column. Cic.

 ${\tt Note}.{-}{\tt In}$ the Passive these compounds and some others admit an Accusative depending upon the preposition :

Praetevehor ostia Pantagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagias. Verg. Locum sum praetervectus, I have been carried by the place. Cic.

377. In POETRY, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induō, exuō, cingō, accingō, indūcō, etc.—are sometimes used reflexively in the Passive, like the Greek Middle, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam induitur, he puts on his Helmet. Verg. Inutile ferrum cingitur, he girds on his useless sword. Verg. Virgines longam indutae vestem, maidens attired in long robes. Liv.

Note.—A few other verbs sometimes admit a similar construction in the poets;

Antiquum saturāta dolorem, having satisfied her old besentment. Verg. Suspēnsi loculis lacerto, with saturbles hung upon the arm (having hung, etc.). Hor. Pāscuntur silvās, they browse on the forests. Verg.

II. ACCUSATIVE IN AN ADVERBIAL SENSE.

RULE VIII.—Accusative of Specification.

378. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

¹ The Ablative of the person is often omitted, and, instead of the Accusative of the bing, a clause is often used. With postulo and quaero the Ablative with $d\dot{r}$ occurs. For examples and for other special constructions, see Dictionary.

² See 371, II.

³ As a rare exception, moneo admits a noun as the Accusative of the thing; see Plant. Stich., 1, 2, 1.

⁴ The Accusative of Specification is closely related to the Cognate Accusative and to the Poetic Accusative after Passive verbs used reflexively, both of which readily pass into an adverbial construction. Thus capita in capita vilamur and paleam in galeam

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads, or have veiled our heads). Verg. Nūbe humerōs amictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor. Mīles frāctus membra labōre, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aenēās ōs deō similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Verg.

- 1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See Ablative of Specification, 424.
- 2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, nihil, of id and genus in id temporis, id aetātis (at this time, age), id genus, omne genus, quod genus (for ējus generis, etc.), etc.; also of secus, rēs, and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives—hōc, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cētera, rēliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose:

Maximam partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Cacs. Locus id temporis vacuus erat, the place was at this time vacant. Cic. Aliquid id yenus i scribere, to write something of this kind. Cic. Alias res est improbus, in other things (as to the rest) he is unprincipled. Plaut. Quaerit, quid possint, he inquires now powerful they are. Caes. Quid venisti, why have you come? Plaut.

RULE IX.-Accusative of Time and Space.

379. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Römulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annös, Romulus reigned thirty-seven YEARS. Liv. Cyrus quadrāgintā annös nātus rēgnāre coepit, Cyrus began to reign (when) forty years old (having been born forty years). Cic. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five miles. Cic. Pedēs octōgintā dīstāre, to be eighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pedēs alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But—

1. Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Ablative, or by the Accusative with a preposition:

Pügnätum est höris quinque, the battle was fought five Hours. Caes. I'er annös viginti certätum est, the war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. DISTANCE is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Milibus passuum sex à Caesaris castris consédit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp. Caes.

Note.—Ab used adverbially, meaning off, sometimes accompanies the Abiative:

Ab milibus passuum duöbus castra posucrunt, they pitched their camp two miles off. Caes.

induitur are similar constructions, while quid in quaerit quid possint may be explained either as a Cognate Accusative (371, I., 2) or as an Adverbial Accusative.

¹ Some grammarians treat genus in all such cases as an Appositive: aliquid, id genus, something, this kind; see Draeger, I., p. 2.

RULE X .- Accusative of Limit.

380. The PLACE TO WHICH is designated by the Accusative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to of toward the city. Cic. Ad me scribunt, they are writing to me. Cic. In Asiam redit, he returns into Asia. Nep. Confugit in aram, he fled to the altar. Nep.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plato Tarentum vēnit, Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Fugit Tarquinios, he fled to Tarquinio. Cic. But—

Note.—Verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc.—convenio, $c\bar{o}g\bar{o}$, convoco, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of motion, and thus take the Accusative, generally with a preposition; but verbs meaning to place— $loc\bar{o}$, $colloc\bar{o}$, $p\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of rest, and thus take the Ablative (425), generally with a preposition:

Unum in locum convenire, to meet in one place. Caes. Cōpiās in unum locum cōgere, to collect forces in one place. Caes. In alterius manu vitam pōnere, to place one's life in the hand of another. Cic.

1. In the NAMES OF TOWNS the Accusative with ad occurs—(1) to denote to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and (2) in contrast with a or ab:

Très sunt viae ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina. Cic. Ad Zamam pervenit, he came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall. Ā Diānio ad Sinōpēn, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.

- 2. Like NAMES OF TOWNS are used-
- 1) The Accusatives domum, domôs, rūs:

Scipió domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Domôs abducti, led to their homes. Liv. Rūs évolāre, to hasten into the country. Cic. Domum reditió, a return home. Caes.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of islands and peninsulas:

Latona confugit Delum, Latona fled to Delos. Cic. Pervenit Chersonesum, he went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

3) Rarely a few other Accusatives, as exsequiās, infitiās, etc.: 2

Ille infitias ibit, he will deny (will proceed to A DENIAL). Ter.

- 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:
- ¹ Originally the place to which was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

² See also the Supine in um, 546.

Aegyptum profugit, he fled to Egypt. Cic. Maliam vēnit, he came to ltaly. Verg. Ibimus Afrōs, we shall go to the Africans. Verg. Lāvinia vēnit lītora, he came to the Lavinian shores. Verg.

4. A POETICAL DATIVE occurs for the Accusative, with or without a preposition:

It clamor caelo (for ad caelum), the shout ascends to Heaven. Verg. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Hades. Verg. See 385, 4.

III. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.

381. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy! Cic. Mē miserum, me miserable! Cic. \bar{O} fallācem spem, O deceptive hope! Cic. Mē caecum, blind that I am! Cic. $Pr\bar{o}$ defrum fidem, in the name of the gods! Cic. Hanccine audāciam, this audacity? Cic. But—

NOTE 1.—An adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

Note 2.— \vec{O} , $\vec{\epsilon}heu$, and heu are the interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.

Note 8 .- Other cases also occur in exciamations:

- 1) The Vocative-when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:
- Pro sancte Juppiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infelix Dido, unhappy Dido, Verg.
- 2) The Nominative—when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

En dectra, LO THE RIGHT HAND (there is, or that is the right hand)! Verg. Ecce tune litterie, LO your LETTER (comes)! Cic.

The Dative—to designate the person after ei, vae, and sometimes after ecce, ên, àem;³

Ei mihi, woe to me. Verg. Vae tibi, woe to you. Ter. Ecce tibi, to to you to here is to you - observe). Cie. En tibi, this for you (lo I do this for you). Liv.

SECTION V.

DATIVE.

382. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and designates the Person to or for whom, or the Thing to or for which, anything is or is done.

¹ See Milton, 'Paradise Lost,' IV., 78.

² The exclamation may of course be intercogative in character.

⁵ This is an Ethical Dative; see 389.

⁴ The Indirect Object is generally a person, is something personified. Unlike the Direct Object, it is never contained in the action or produced by it, but is in most instances the interested recipient of it.

⁶ Whether this was the original meaning of the Dative to not known. Delbrüch

383. The Dative is used—

- I. With a large class of Verbs and Adjectives;
- II. With a few special Nouns and Adverbs.

RULE XII.-Dative with Verbs.

384. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used—

I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tibī serviō, I am devoted to you. Plaut. Serviunt populō, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Imperiō pārēbant, they were obedient to (obeyed) authority. Caes. Temporī cēdit, he yields to the time. Cic. Labōrī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deō pāret, the world obeys God.¹ Cic. Caesarī supplicābō, I will supplicate Caesar.¹ Cic. Nōbīs vīta data est, life has been granted to us. Cic. Numitōrī dēditur, he is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. With TRANSITIVE Verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agrōs plēbī dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic. Tibī grātiās agō, I give thanks to you. Cic. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, Nature reconciles man to man. Cic. Pōns iter hostibus dedit, the bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Lēgōs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, they prepared laws for their states. Cic.

- 1. The Indirect Object may be-
- 1) The Dative of Influence,² designating the person to whom something is or is done:

Serviunt populo, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Agros plebi dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic.

2) The Dative of Interest,² designating the person for whom something is or is done:

Sibi Megarenses vicit, he conquered the Megarians for himself. Just.

3) The Dative of Purpose or End,² designating the object or end for which something is or is done:

Receptui cecinit, he gare the signal for a retreat. Liv.

thinks that this case originally designated the place or object toward which the action tended. See Kuhn's 'Zeltschrift,' vol. xvill., p. 81.

1 Is subject to God; will make supplication to Caesar.

² Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus Megarêness vicit is complete in itself.

2. DOUBLE CONSTRUCTION.—A few verbs admit—(1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alicui rem dōnāre, 'to present a thing to any one,' or aliquem rē dōnāre, 'to present any one with a thing': '

Praedam militibus donat, he gives the booty to the soldiers. Caes. Athenienses frümento donavit, he presented the Athenians with orain. Nep.

Note.—This construction may also be used of objects which are in a measure personified, or which involve persons:

Mürum urbi circumdedit, he built a wall around the city. Nep. Deus animum circumdedit corpore, God has encompassed the soul with a body. Cic.

- 3. To and for are not always signs of the Dative. Thus-
- 1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (380):

Vēnī ad urbem, I came to the city. Cic. Dēlum vēnimus, we came to Delos. Cic.

Note 1.—But the Dative occurs in the poets; see 380, 4, and 385, 4.

Note 2.—Mitto, 'to send,' and scrībo, 'to write,' take the Dative, or the Accusative with ad, to denote the person to whom:

Scribit Labiéné, he writes to Labienus. Caes. Scribés ad mê, you will write to me. Cic.

2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Ablative with pro; for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accusative with in:

Pro patria mori, to die for one's country. Hor. Dimicare pro libertate, to fight for liberty. Cic. Satis in usum, enough for use. Liv.

4. The Dative sometimes depends, not upon the verb alone, but upon the Predicate as a whole:

Tegimenta galeis ² milités facere jubet, he orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets. Caes. Liberis divités esse volumus, we wish to be rich for the sake of our children. Cic. Quis huic réi testis est, who testifies to this (lit., is a witness for this tring). Cic.

Note 1.—The Dative is used with verbs modified by satis, bene, and male, whether written as compounds or not:

Illis satis facere (also written satisfacere), to satisfy them. 3 Caes. Cui bene dixit unquam, for whom has he ever spoken a good word? Cic. Optimō virō maledīcere, to revile a most excellent man. Cic.

Note 2.—A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending upon a noun:

In conspectum venerat hostibus, 4 he had come in sight of the enemy (lit., to the

- ¹ This double construction occurs chiefly with aspergö, circumdō, circumfundō, dōnō, exuō, impertiō, induō, īnspergō, interclūdō.
- ² Galeis is best explained as depending upon tegimenta facere, rather than upon facere alone; liberis, as depending upon divites esse volumus, and rei upon testis est.
 - 3 Literally, to do enough for THEM.
- Hostibus does not depend at all upon conspectum, but upon the entire predicate, in conspectum venerat.

ENEMY). Cic. Caesari ad pedēs proicere, to cast at the feet of Caesar (lit., to Caesar, at the feet). Caes. Mihi horror membra quatit, a shudder shakes my limbs. Verg. Urbī fundamenta jacere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv.

Note 3.—The Dative is sometimes very loosely connected with the predicate, merely

designating the person with reference to whom the statement is true:

Tū illī pater es, you are a father to him. Tac. Triduī iter expedītīs erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers. Liv. Est urbe ēgressīs tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city. Verg.

5. WITH IMPERSONAL PASSIVE.—Verbs which admit only an *Indirect Object* in the Active are *Impersonal* in the Passive, but they may retain the Dative:

Hostibus resistunt, they resist the enemy. Caes. His sententiis resistitur, resistance is offered to these opinions. Caes. Në mihi noceant, that they may not injure me. Cic. Mihi nihil noceti potest, no injury can be done to me (lit., injury can be done to me not at all). Cic.

- 385. WITH SPECIAL VERBS.—The *Dative* of the *Indirect Object* is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus—
- I. With verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, and the like:

Sibi prosunt, they benefit themselves. Cic. Nocere alteri, to injure another. Cic. Zēnōnī placuit, it pleased Zeno. Cic. Displicet Tullō, it displeases Tullus. Liv. Cupiditātibus imperāre, to command desires. Cic. Deō pārēre, to obey God. Cic. Rēgī servīre, to serve the king. Cic. Hostibus resistere, to resist the enemy. Caes.

II. With verbs signifying to indulge, spare, pardon, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like:

Sibi indulgēre, to indulge one's self. Cic. Vītae parcere, to spare life. Nep. Mihi ignoscere, to pardon me. Cic. Minitans patriae, threatening his country. Liv. Īrāscī amīcīs, to be angry with friends. Cic. Mihi crēde believe me. Cic. līs persuādēre, to persuade them. Caes.

Note 1.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: $d\hat{e}lect\hat{o}$, $juv\hat{o}$, $laed\hat{o}$, $offend\hat{o}$, etc.:

Marium jüvit, he helped Marius. Nep. Non me fama delectat, fame does not delight me. Cic,

Note 2.—For fido and confido with the Abiative, see 425, 1, 1), note.

NOTE 3 .- The force of the Dative is often found of by by attending to the strict mean-

1 Other examples are: Ā Pylīs euntī locō altō sitī sunt, they are situated in an elerated place as you come (lit., to one coming) from Pylas. Llv. Dēscendentībus inter duōs lūcōs, as you descend (lit., to those descending) between the two groves. Liv. Exsecudentībus ad templum māceria erat, there was an enclosure as you ascended to the temple. Llv. In ūniversum aestimantī plūs penes peditem rōboris est, to make a general estimate (lit., to one making, etc.), there is more strength in the infantry. Tac. ing of the verb: $n\bar{u}b\bar{o}$, 'to marry' (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bride groom); medsor, 'to cure' (to administer a remedy to); $satisfaci\bar{o}$, 'to satisfy' (to de enough for), etc.

1. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one; cavere aliqui, to care for some one.

Consulere aliquem, to consult, etc.; alicui, to consult for, etc.

Metuere, timere aliquem, to fear; alicui, to fear FOR.

Prospicere, providere aliquid, to foresee; alicui, to provide FOR.

Temperare, moderari aliquid, to govern, direct; aliqui (of things), to restrain, put a check upon; temperare aliqui (of persons), to spare:

Hunc tū cavēto, be on your guard against this one (lit., ward him off). Hor. Ēī cavēre volo, I wish to care for him (i.e., to protect him). Cic. Perfidiam timēmus, we fear perfidy. Cic. Sibi timuerant, they had feared for themselves. Caes.

Note.—Dare litter as ad aliquem means to address a letter to some one; but dare litter as alicut generally means to deliver a letter to one as a carrier of messenger:

Litterae mihi ad Catilinam datae sunt, a letter addressed to Catiline was delivered to Mr. Cic.

2. A DATIVE rendered from occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away, etc.:

Differre cuivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. Somnum mihi adimere, to take sleep from me. Cic.

Note.—For the Poetical Dative, see 4, below; and for the Ablative with verbs of Separation or Difference, see 413.

3. A Dative rendered with occurs with misceo, admisceo, etc., and sometimes with facio:

Sevēritātem miscēre comitātī, to unite severity with affability. Liv. Quid huic hominī faciās, what are you to do with (to) this man? Cic. See 4 below.

- 4. DATIVE IN POETRY.—In the poets and in late prose-writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:
- 1) With verbs denoting Motion or Direction—for the Accusative with ad or in:

Multös démittimus Orcō (for ad or in Orcum), we send many down to Orcus. Verg. Caelō (for ad caelum) palmās tetendit, he extended his hands toward heaven. Verg. It clāmor caelō, the shout goes to heaven. Verg. See also 392, I.

2) With verbs denoting Separation or Difference 2—instead of the Ablative with ab or dē, or the Accusative with inter:

Sölstitium pecori (for a pecore) defendite, keep off the heat from the flock. Verg. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester. Hor. Serta capiti delapsa, garlands fallen from his head. Verg.

¹ Many other verbs take different constructions with different meanings; see e²dō. convento, cupiō, dēficiō, doleō, maneō, parcō, petō, solvō, and volō in the Dictionary.

² Thus with arceo, absum, differo, dissentio, dissideo, disto, etc.; see Dictionary

3) With verbs denoting Union, Comparison, Contention, and the like 1—instead of the Ablative with cum, or the Accusative with inter:

Miscet ² virīs, he mingles with the men. Verg. Concurrere hosti (for cum hoste), to meet the enemy. Ov. Sõlus tibi certat, he alone contends with you, Verg. Placitöne pügnäbis smörī, will you contend with acceptable love? Verg.

4) In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri (for in latere) arundó, the arrow sticks in her side. Verg. Ärdet spex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head. Verg.

386. Dative with Compounds.—The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with—

ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super:

Adsum amīcīs, I am present with MY friends. Cic. Omnibus antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terrīs cohacret, it cleaves to the earth. Sen. Hǒc Caesarī dēfuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes. Voluptātī inhacrēre, to be connected with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Nep. Cōnsilīs obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Lībertātī opēs postferre, to sacrifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Populō praesunt, they rule the people. Cic. Tibǐ prōsunt, they are profitable to you. Cic. Succumbere dolōribus, to yield to sorrows. Cic. Superfuit patrī, he survived his father. Liv.

1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the Accusative and the Dative:

Se opposuit hostibus, he opposed HIMSELF TO THE ENEMY. Cic. Capiti subduxerat ensem, she had removed my sword from my head. Verg. See also Libertati opes postferre, above.

2. Compounds of other Prepositions, especially of ah, ex, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Sibi libertatem abjudicat, he deprires Himself (sentences himself to the loss) of liberty. Cic. Mihi timorem cripe, free me from fear (lit., snatch away fear for me). Cic. Pāgnā assucscere, to be accustomed to (trained in) battle. Liv. Dicta cum factis componere, to compare words with deeds. Sall.

3. Motion on Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition:

2 Mineed, as a transitive verb, occurs with the Accusative and Dative even in classical prose; see 385, 3; also 371, III., note 2.

³ See assuesco, assuefacio, acquiesco, coco, cohaereo, coltudo, communico, compuno, concordo, confero, confligo, congruo, conjungo, consentio, consto, insisto, insisto, insideo, insum, and interdico, in the Dictionary. See also Draeger, 1., pp. 406-426

4 See accido, accido, addo, adfero, adhaeresco, adhibeo, adjungo, adnitor, adscribo, adsum illado, incido, incumbo, incurro, infero, offero, oppono, in the Dictionary

¹ Thus, with e^{*}pulô, jungô, misceô, admisceô, permisceô, neclô, sociô, etc.; certô, contendô, lúctor, pāgnô, etc.

Adire Arūs, to approach the altaes. Cic. Ad consules adire, to go to the consules. Cic. In bellum insistit, he devotes himself to the war. Caes. Ad omne periculum opponitur, he is exposed to every peril. Cic.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning: 1

Munitionibus adjacent, they are near the fortifications. Tac. Mare illud adjacent, they are near that sea. Nep. Quibus timor incesserat, whom fear had seized. Sall. Timor patres incessit, fear seized the fathers. Liv.

5. Many compounds which usually take the Accusative or the Ablative with a preposition in classical prose, admit a Dative in poetry:

Quid contendat hirundo oycnis (for cum cycnis), why should the swallow contend with swans? Lucr. Contendis Homèro, you contend with Homer. Prop. Animis illabi nostris (for in animos nostros), to sink into our minds. Verg.

Note.—Instead of the compounds of ad, ante, etc., the poets sometimes use in the same sense the simple verbs 2 with the Dative:

Qui haeserat (= adhaeserat) Ēvandrō, who had joined himself to Evander. Verg. Pōnis (= appōnis) mihi porcum, you offer me (place before me) swine's flesh. Martial

387. The DATIVE OF THE POSSESSOR is used with the verb sum:

Miht est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. Verg. Fonti nomen Arethusa est, the fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cic. But—

Note 1.—The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: $n\bar{o}men\ est,\ n\bar{o}men\ datur,\ etc.$:

Sciptioni Āfricānō cōgnōmen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here $\bar{A}fricān\bar{o}$, instead of being in apposition with $c\bar{o}gn\bar{o}men$, is put by attraction in apposition with $Scipi\bar{o}n\bar{i}$.

NOTE 2.—The GENITIVE OF THE NAME dependent upon nomen occurs:

Nomen Mercuri est mihi, I have the name of MERCURY. Plant.

NOTE 3.—By a Greek Idiom, volens, cupiens, or invitus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, who taked the war (lit., to whom wishing the war was). Tac.

388. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive, and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

¹ Such are adjaceō, adūlor, antecēdō, antecō, cēnītor, dēspērō (also with dē), illūtō, incēdō, īnsulto, invādō, praecurrō, praesto, praestolor.

² Thus ferô for adferô, prôferô; haereô for adhaereô; pônô for appônô, dêpônô, impônô, etc.

³ The Datire with est usually expresses simple possession or ownership, like the English have. Habeo is sometimes used in the same sense, but it more commonly expresses some of the shades of meaning denoted by hold, keep, regard, and the like: arcem habere, 'to hold the citadel'; aliquem in obsidione habere, 'to hold or keep one in siege'; pro hoste habere, 'to regard as an enemy.'

Proelia conjugibus loquenda, battles for women to talk about. Hor. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

Note.—Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab is sometimes used:

Quibus est à vôble 2 consulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you. Cic.

1. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihi consilium captum jam diù est, I have a plan long since formed. Cic.

Note.—Habeō with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mint with the Participle:

Bellum habuit indictum, he had a war (already) declared. Cic.

- 2. The Real Agent, with Passive verbs, is in classical prose denoted by the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab; \bar{s} see 415, I.
- 3. The DATIVE is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (To) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, honorable things are sought by good men (i. e., for themselves). Cic.

4. In the Poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative with \tilde{a} or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Non intellegor ülli, I am not understood by any one. Ovid. Regnata arva Saturno, lands ruled by Saturn. Verg.

389. The ETHICAL DATIVE, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence:

At tibi venit ad mē, but lo, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat animum, let him, I PRAY, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quō mihi abīs, whither are you going, PRAY? Verg. Quid mihi Celsus agit, what is MY Celsus doing? Hor.

- ¹ The Dative with the *Gerundive*, whether alone or in the *Periphrastic ('onjugation*, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbalt designates the person who has the work already done.
- ² Here \bar{a} $v\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ is necessary, to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, quibus; but the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.
- ³ The Dailve with the Gerundive is best explained as the *Datire of Possessor* or of Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommodum est means 'every one has his trouble 'cuique, Dative of Possessor); and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, 'every one has his trouble to bear.' So too, mihi constitum est, 'I have a plan'; mihi constitum captum est, 'I have a plan (already) formed.'
- 4 Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut.' Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II. 'It ascends me into the brain.' Henry IV., Part II., Act IV., Scene III. 'He presently steps me a little higher.' Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.

NOTE 1 .- The ETHICAL DATIVE Is always a personal pronoun.

Note 2. - The Ethical Dative occurs with volo and with interjections:

Quid võõis vultis, what do you wish, intend, mean! Llv. Aväritia quid sibi vult what does avarice mean! or what object can it have! Cic. Ei mihī, ah me! Verg Vas tibī, wos to you. Ter. See 381, note 3, 3).

RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs:

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malò est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men (lit., is to men for an evil). Cic. Est milò cùrae, it is a care to me. Cic. Domus dedecorò domino fit, the house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Venit Atticis auxilio, he came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hoc illì tribuebatur Ignaviae, this was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Eis subsidio missus est, he was sent to them as aid. Nep.

II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidió reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit., to the camp for a defence). Caes. Pericles agros suos dono rei publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit., for a present). Just.

Note 1 .- The verbs which take two Datives are-

1) Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, fio, etc.

2) Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: dō, dōnō, dōcō, habeō, mittō, relinquō, tribuō, vertō, etc. These take in the Active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the Passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the Active becomes the subject of the Passive: see 464.

Note 2.—One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a predicate noun:

Ea sunt usur, these things are of use (for use). Caes. The illi pater es, you are

A FATHER TO HIM. Tac. See 362, 2, note 3.

Note 3.—With audièns two Datives sometimes occur, dicté dependent upon audièns, and a personal Dative dependent upon dicté audièns, and sometimes dicté obocdièns is used like dicté audièns:

Dictō sum audiëns, I am listening to the word. Plaut. Nöbīs dictō audiëns est, he is obedient to us. Cic. Magistrō dictō oboediëns, obedient to his master. Plaut.

RULE XIV.-Dative with Adjectives.

391. With adjectives the овјест то which the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus cărum est, the soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est tempori, this is adapted to the time. Cic. Omni aetālī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Canis similis lupõ

est, a dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Naturae accommodatum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae utile, useful to Greece. Nep.

I. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those signifying-

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and verbals in bilis.

- II. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:
- 1. The Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, ergā, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgens in patrem, very kind to his father. Cic. Multas ad res perutilis, very useful for many things. Cic. Pronus ad luctum, inclined to mourning. Cic.

2. The Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propior montem, nearer the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes. See 433 and 437.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition :

Aliènum à vità mea, foreign to my Life. Ter. Homine aliènissimum, most foreign to or from MAN. Cic. El cum Roscio communis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.

4. The Genitive: (1) with adjectives used substantively; (2) with adjectives meaning like, 2 unlike, 2 near, belonging to, and a few others: 3

Amīcissimus hominum, the best friend of the Men (i. e., the most friendly to them). Cic. Alexandrī similis, like Alexander (i. c., in character). Cic. Dispar suī, unlike itself. Cic. Cūjus parcs, like whom. Cic. Populi Rōmānī est propria libertūs, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic.

Note 1.—Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem faci . occidenti, he does the same as to kill, or as he who kills. Hor.

Note 2.—For the Genitive and Dative with an adjective, see 399. I., note 1.

RULE XV.-Dative with Nouns and Adverbs.

392. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs:

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātič 1 lēgibus, justice is obedience to LAWS. Cic.

¹ Such . → accommodūtus, asquālis, altinus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, cārus, facilis, difficilis, fidēlis, īnfidēlis, fīnitimus, grātus, ingrātus, idōneus, jūcundus. injūcundus, molestus, necessārius, nōtus, īgnōtus, norius, pār, dispar, perniciōsus, propinquus, proprius, salūtūris, similis, dissimilis, dīversus, rīcīnus, etc.

² The Genitive is used especially of likeness and unlikeness in Character.

³ As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par, dispar; adfinis, finitimus propringuus; proprius, sacer, communis; alienus, contrarius, insuetus, etc.

⁴ From obtempero. which takes the Dative

Sibi responsio, a reply to himself. Cic. Opulento homini servitus dura est, serving (servitude to) a rich man is hard. Plaut. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Avernus. Verg.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter? nātūrae vīvere, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibī convenienter dīcere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Prōxi mē hostium castrīs, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

NOTE 1.—In rare instances the Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not included in the rule:

Tribunicia potestăs, munimentum $l\bar{i}bert\bar{u}ti$, tribunician power, a defence for liberty. Liv. Huic $\bar{u}n\bar{a}=\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ cum hōc, with this one. Verg.

Note 2.- For the Dative of Gerundives with official names, see 544, note 3.

Note 8.—For the Dative with interjections, see 381, note 8; 389, note 2.

SECTION VI.

GENITIVE.

398. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.

NOTE.—But the Genitive, especially when objective (396, III.), is sometimes best rendered to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

Beneficii grātia, gratitude for a favor. Cic. Laborum fuga, escape from labors. Cic. Ēreptae virginis ira, anger on account of the rescue of the maiden. Verg.

394. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, though it also occurs with verbs and adverbs.

RULE XVI.-Genitive with Nouns.

395. Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:

Catōnis ōrātiōnēs, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hamilearis, the death of Hamilear. Liv. Deūm metus, the fear of the gods. Liv. Vir cōnsiliī māgnī, a man of great prudence. Caes. Pars populī, a part of the people. Cic.

¹ From descendo, which admits the Dative in poetry; see 385, 4, 1).

² From congruens, which takes the Dative.

The Genitive has nearly the force of an adjective, and means simply of or belonging to. Thus, rēgis, equivalent to rēgius, means of or belonging to a king. On the origin and use of the Genitive, see Hübschmann, p. 106; Merguet, p. 69; Holzweissig, pp. 26 and 73; Draeger, I., pp. 447-493; Roby, H., pp. 116-187.

⁴ Doubtless originally it limited only nouns and adjectives

NOTE 1 .- For the Appositive, see 363.

Note 2,-An Adjective is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Bellica gloria = belli gloria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjūnx Hectorea = conjūnx Hectoris, the wife of Hector. Verg. Pūgna Marathonia, the battle of Marathon. Cic. Diāna Ephesia, Diana of Ephesus. Cic. See 393, foot-note.

Note 3 .- For the Predicate Genitive, see 401.

NOTE 4 .- For special uses of the Dative, see 384, 4, note 2.

396. The qualifying Genitive may be-

I. A Possessive Genitive, designating the author and the possessor:

Xenophontis libri, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fanum Neptūnī, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. A Subjective Genitive, designating the *subject* or *agent* of the action, feeling, etc.:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cie. Pavor Numidarum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv.

Note.-The Possessive Pronoun is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Mea domus, my house. Cic. Fama tua, your fame. Clo.

III. An OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, designating the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor gloriae, the love of glory. Cic. Memoria malorum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deam metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

NOTE 1.—For the OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, the Accusative with in, erga, or adversus is sometimes used:

Odium in hominum genus, hatred of or toward the race of men. Clc. Ergā võs amor, love toward you. Clc.

NOTE 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive of Personal pronouns;

Tua fiducia, reliance on you. Cic.

IV. A Partitive Genitive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cic. Omnium sapientissimus, the wisest of all men. Cic.

V. A DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE, also called a GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir māximī consilii, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mitis ingenii juvenis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vestis māgnī pretii, a garment of great value. Cic. Exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years. Nep. Corona parvī ponderis, a crown of small weight. Liv. See 404.

¹ It will be found convenient thus to characterize the different uses of the Genitive by the relation actually existing between the words united by it, though that special relation is not expressed by the case itself, but merely suggested by the meaning of the words thus united.

Note 1.—The Descriptive Genitive must be accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier, unless it be a compound containing a modifier; as $h\bar{n}jusmod\bar{i} = h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{i}$; $tr\bar{i}du\bar{i}$, from $tr\bar{e}s\ di\bar{e}s$; $bidu\bar{i}$, from $duo\ (bis)\ di\bar{e}s$.

NOTE 2.—For id genus = èjus generis, omne genus = omnis generis, see 378, 2.

NOTE 3.—For the Descriptive Ablative, see 419, II., with note.

VI. An Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtus continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausoniae, the land of Ausonia. Verg.

397. The Partitive Generitive designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With pars, $n\bar{e}m\bar{\delta}$, nihil; with nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc., as modius, $legi\bar{\delta}$, talentum; and with any nouns used partitively:

Equorum pars, a part of the horses. Liv. Nihil novi (441, 2), nothing NEW (of NEW). Cic. Nihil reliqui (441, 2), nothing left (lit., of the rest). Sall. Medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat. Cic. Pecuniae talentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quorum Gaius, of whom Gaius. Cic.

2. With Numerals used substantively: 1

Quorum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Equitum centum, a hundred of the cavalry. Curt. Sapientum octavus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor Unus pontium, one of the bridges. Caes.

Note.—In good prose the Genitive is not used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English:

Qui (not quèrum) duo supersunt, of whom two survive. Cic. Omnés homines, all men. Cic. But see p. 209, note 4, with foot-note.

3. With *Pronouns* and *Adjectives* used substantively, especially with comparatives, superlatives, and neuters: ²

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Num quidnam novī, is there anything new (of New)? Cic. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior horum, the former of these. Nep. Gallorum fortissimī, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operae, much (of) service. Cic.

Note 1.—Pronouns and adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive, take the gender of the Genitive, unless they agree directly with some other word; see *consulum alter*, above.

Note 2.— *Uterque*, 'each,' 'both,' is generally used as an adjective; but when it is combined it the singular number with another pronoun, it usually takes that pronoun in the Genitive:

Uterque exercitus, each army. Caes. Quae utraque, both of which. Sall. Utrique nostrum 3 gratum, acceptable to each of us. Cic.

- ¹ Numerals used adjectively agree with their nouns: mille homines, 'a thousand men'; mille hominum, 'a thousand of men'; multi homines, 'many men'; multi hominum, 'many of the men.'
- ³ As höc, id, illud, quid; multum, plue, plürimum, minue, minimum, tantum quantum, etc.
 - A Partitive Genitive, because a pronoun.

Note 3.—For the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with inter or ante, or the Ablative with ex. dē, or in, is sometimes used:

Inter reges opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cic. Unus 1 de legatis, one of the lieutenants. Cic.

NOTE 4.—Poets and late prose writers make a very free use of the Partitive Genitive after adjectives:

Sancta deārum, holy goddess. Enn. Sancte deŏrum, O holy god. Verg. Fēstōs diērum, festal days. Hor. Levēs cohortium, the light-armed cohorts. Tac. Inclutue philosophōrum, the renovened philosophēr. Just. Rēliquum diēl, the rest of the day. Liv. Multum diēl, much of the day. Liv. Rēliquum noctis, the rest of the night. Tac. Strāta viārum = strātae viae, paved streets. Verg. Vāna rērum = vānae rēs, vain things. Hor. Hominum cūnctī, all of the men. Ovid. Cūncta terrārum, all lands. Hor. See also 438, 5.

NOTE 5.—The Neuter of pronouns and adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of persons;

Quid hoc est hominis, what kind of a man is this? Plant. Quidquid erat patrum reos diceres, you would have said that all the senators (lit., whatever there was of fathers) were accused. Liv. Quid hoc tantum hominum incedunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming hither? Plant.

4. The Partitive Genitive also occurs with a few adverbs, especially when they are used substantively: 3

Armörum adfatim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lūcis nimis, too much (of) light. Ovid. Sapientiae parum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim cöpiärum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quod ējus facere potest, as far as (what of it) he is able to do. Cic. Nūsquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Hūc arrogantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Māximē omnium, most of all. Cic.

398. Genitive in Special Constructions.—Note the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus-

Aedès, templum, discipulus, homő, juvenis, puer, etc.; causa, grātia, and indeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jovis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annorum novem (sc. puer), Hannibal, a boy nine years of age. Liv. Aberant bidul (sc. viam or spatium), they were two days' journey distant. Cic. Conferre vitam Treboni cum Dolăbellae (sc. vită), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella. Cic.

Note 1.—The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before snother Genitive, as in the last example; and then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case of the governing word:

¹ Cnus is generally followed by the Ablative with $\epsilon \omega$ or $d\delta$, but sometimes by the Genitive.

² Observe that in this case the *partitive* idea has entirely disappeared, and that the construction is *partitive* in *form*, but not in *sense*.

³ As with adverbs of Quantity—abunde, adfatim, nimis, parum, partim, quoad. satis, etc.; of Place—hic, hic, ninguam, ubi, etc.; of Extent, Degree, etc.—bi, hic, quoi; and with superlatives. As adverbs are substantives or adjectives in origin, it is not strange that they are thus used with the Genitive.

Nătūra hominis bēluīs (for bēluārum nātūras) antecēdit, the nature of man sur passes (that of) the brutes. Cic.

NOTE 2.—In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Genitive depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hasdrubal Gisconis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Verg.

2. Two Generally subjective, the other either objective or descriptive:

Memmī odium potentiae, Memmius's hatred of power. Sall. Helvētiōrum injūriae populī Rōmānī, the wrongs done by the Helvētii to the Roman people. Caes. Superiōrum diērum Sabīnī cunctātiō, the delay of Sabinus during (lit., of) the preceding days. Caes.

3. A GENITIVE sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of ipse, solus, unus, or omnis:

Tua ipsĭus amīcitia, vour own friendship. Cic. Meum sōlĭus peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nomen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

4. The Genitive is used with Instar, 'likeness,' 'image,' in the sense of as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equus, a horse of the size of a mountain, Verg.

5. The Genitive is used with prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō, and tenus:2

Pridie ejus diei, on the day before that day. Caes. Postridie ejus diei, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergō, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenus with the Ablative, see 434.

RULE XVII.—Genitive with Adjectives.

399. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidus laudis, desirous of PRAISE. Cic. Ōtit cupidus, desirous of LEIS-URE. Liv. Conscius conjūrātionis, cognizant of the conspiracy. Sall. Amāns suī virtūs, virtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficions voluptātis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Gloriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv.

Note.—This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns:

Amor giōriae, the love of glory. Cic. Appetens giōriae, desirous of (eager for) glory. Cic.

- I. The Genitive is used with adjectives denoting-
- 1. DESIRE OF AVERSION: 3

¹ Ipsius may be explained as agreeing with tui (of you), involved in tua, and sölius and absentis as agreeing with mei (of me), involved in meum.

² These words are strictly *nouns*, and, as such, govern the Genitive. *Prīdiē* and *postrīdiē* are Locatives; *ergō* is an Ablative, and *tenus*, an Accusative; see 304; 307, note 1.

³ Such are—(1) avidus, cupidus, studiosus; fastidiosus, etc.; (2) gnārus, īgnórus, consultus, conscius, inscius, nescius, certus, incertus; providus, prūdens, imprū

Contentionis cupidus, desirous of contention. Cic. Sapientiae studiosus, studious of (student of) wisdom. Cic. Terrae fastidiosus, weary of the land. Hor.

2. Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, with their contraries: 1

Rěi gnārus, acquainted with the thing. Cic. Prūdēns rěi militāris, skilled in military science. Nep. Perītus bellī, skilled in war. Nep. Īnsuētus laboris, unaccustomed to labor. Caes. Gloriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv. Immemor beneficiī, forgetful of kindness. Cic

3. Participation, Guilt, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries: 1

Adfinis culpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rationis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rationis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Manifestus rerum capitalium, convicted of capital crimes. Sall. Vita metus plena, a life full of fear. Cic. Mei potens sum, I am master of myself. Liv. Virtutis compos, gapable of virtue. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive and Dative sometimes occur with the same adjective:

Mēns sibi conscia rēcti, a mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Verg. Sibi conscil culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

NOTE 2.—For the Genitive with adjectives used substantively, and with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, etc., see 391, II., 4.

Note 3.—For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 421, note 3.

II. The Genitive is used with VERBALS in ax, and with PRESENT PARTICIPLES used adjectively:

Virtūtum ferāx, productive of virtues. Liv. Tenāx propositī, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amāns patriae, fond of his country.² Cic. Fugiens laboris, shunning labor. Caes.

III. In the poets and in late prose writers, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used—

1. With adjectives of almost every variety of signification, simply to define their application:³

Aevī matūrus, mature in age. Verg. Ingēns vīrium, mighty in strength. Sall. Sērī studiōrum, late in studies. Hor. Integer aevī, unimpaired in age (i. e., in the bloom of youth). Verg. Aeger animī, aflicted in spirit. Liv. Ānxius animī, anxious in mind. Sall. Fīdēns animī, confident in spirit. Verg.

2. With a few adjectives, to denote cause:

Lactus laborum, pleased with the labors. Verg. Notus animi paterni, distinguished for paternal affection. Hor.

dēns; peritus, imperitus, rudis, insuitus; memor, immemor, etc.; (3) adfinis, cimsors, exsors, expers, particeps, manifestus, noxius; plinus, fertilis, refertus, eginus, inops, vacuus; potēns, impotēns, compos, etc.

See foot-note 3, page 210.

2 Amāns patriae, 'fond of his country,' represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amāns patriam, 'loving his country,' designates a particular instance or act.

3 Like the Ablative of Specification; see 424. For vôtê reus, 'bound to fuifil a vow,' see 410, 111., note 2.

Probably a Locative in origin, as animis is used in similar instances in the plured.

400. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive, sometimes admit other constructions:

1. The DATIVE:

Manus subitis avidae, hands ready for sudden events. Tac. Insuctus moribus Romanis, unaccustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Facinori mens conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cic. See 391.

2. The Accusative with a preposition:

Insuetus ad pugnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertilis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in novas res, eager for new things. Liv.

3. The Ablative with or without a preposition:

Prudens in jure civili, learned in civil law. Cic. His de rebus conscius, aware of these things. Cic. Vacuus de défénsoribus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Curis vacuus, free from cares. Cic. Refertus bonis, replete with blessings. Cic. See 414, III.

RULE XVIII.-Predicate Genitive.

401. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy. Liv. Senātus Hannibalis erat, the senate was Hannibal's (i. e., in his interest). Liv. Jūdicis est vērum sequī, to follow the truth is the duty of a judge. Cic. Parvī pretiī est, it is of small value. Cic. Tyrus mare suae dicionis fecit, Tyre brought the sea under (lit., made the sea of) her sway. Curt.

Note 1.—For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 362; 373, 1.

Note 2.—A Perdicate Genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a *Predicate adjective* (360, note 1): hominis est = hūmānum est, 'it is the mark of a man,' 'is human'; stulti est = stultum est, 'it is foolish.' The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: supiëntis est (for sapiëns est), 'it is the part of a wise man,' 'is wise.'

Note 3.—Possessive pronouns in agreement with the subject supply the place of the Predicate Genitive 4 of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tuī) vidēre, it is your duty to see. Cic.

Note 4.—Aequi, boni, and réliqui occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequi facere, aequi bonique facere, boni consulere, 'to take in good part,' and réliqui facere, 'to leave':

Aequi bonique facio, I take it in good part. Ter. Milites nihil reliqui victis secere, the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished. Sall

¹ Literally, were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

² Literally, is of A JUDGE.

³ Here dictionis, denoting a different thing from mare, of which it is predicated, in the Genitive.

⁴ This is another illustration of the close relationship between a Predicate Genitive and a Predicate Adjective; see also note 2

402. The PREDICATE GENITIVE is generally Possessive or Descriptive, rarely Partitive:

Haec hostium erant, these things were of (belonged to) the enemy. Liv. Est imperātōris superāre, it is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes. Summae facultātis est, he is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera māgnī fuit, the assistance was of great value. Nep. Fiès nōbilium fontium, you will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

403. The Predicate Genitive occurs most frequently with sum and facio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming, regarding, etc.:

Öram Romanae dicionis fecit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule. Liv. Hominis videtur, it seems to be the mark of a man. Cic. Sec also examples under 401.

NOTE.—Transitive verbs of this class admit in the active an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the first example.

404. The Predicate Genitive of price or value is used with sum and with verbs of valuing:

Māgnī sunt tuae litterae, your letters are of great value. Cic. Plūris esse, to be of greater value. Cic. Parvī pendere, to think lightly of. Sall. Auctoritātem tuam māgnī aestimo, I prize your authority highly. Cic.

NOTE 1.—With these verbs the Genitive of price or value is generally an adjective, as in the examples, but pretii is sometimes used:

Parvi pretii est, it is of little value, Cic.

Note 2.-Nihili and, in familiar discourse, a few other Genitives 3 occur:

Nihili facere, to take no account of. Cic. Non flocci pendere, not to care a straw (lock of wool) for. Plant.

405. Tunti, quanti, plūris, and minoris are also used as GENITIVES OF PRICE with verbs of buying and selling:

Emit hortos tanti, he purchased the gardens at so great a price. Cic. Vendo frumentum plūris, I sell grain at a nigher price. Cic.

Note.—For the Ablative of price, see 422.

RULE XIX.—Genitive with Special Verbs.

406. The Genitive is used-

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserère laborum, pity the labors. Verg. Miserèscite règis, pity the xing. Verg.

¹ Facultātis and māgnī are Descriptive, but fontium is Partitive.

² The following adjectives are so used: māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; plūris, mināris; plūrimī, māximī, and minimī.

³ As assis, flocei, nauci, and piti.

Observe that verbs of buying and selling admit the Genitive of price only when one of these adjectives is used. In other cases they take the Ablative of price.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor: 1

Meminit praeteritõrum, he remembers the past. Cic. Oblītus sum meļ. I have forgotten myself. Ter. Flāgitiõrum recordārī, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Reminīscī virtūtis, to remember virtue. Caes.

III. With refert and interest:

Illorum refert, it concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Cic.

Note.—The expression, Venit in mentem, 'it occurs to mind,' is sometimes construed with the Genitive and sometimes with the Nominative:

Venit mihi Platonis in mentem, the recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or 1 recollect Plato. Cic. Non venit in mentem pugna, does not the battle occur to your mind? Liv.

407. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING often take the Accusative instead of the Genitive:

Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus, Cic. Triumphos recordari, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea reminiscere, remember those things. Cic.

Note 1.—The Accusative is the common construction (1) with recordor and (2) with the other verbs, if it is a neuter pronoun or adjective, or designates an object remembered by a contemporary or an eye-witness,

NOTE 2 .- The Ablative with de is rare:

Recordarc de ceteris, bethink yourself of the others, Cio.

408. The Construction with refert and interest is as follows:

I. The Person or Thing interested is denoted-

- 1. By the Genitive, as under the rule.
- 2. By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive.3 This takes the place of the Genitive of personal pronouns:

Mea refert, it concerns me. Ter. Interest mea, it interests me. Cic.

3. By the Dative, or Accusative with or without Ad; but rarely, and chiefly with refert, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid refert viventi, what does it concern one living? Hor. Ad me refert, it concerns me. Plaut.

II. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun:

¹ The Genitive with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting probably depends upon the substantive idea contained in the verbs themselves; see Internal Object, 371, I., 2. Thus, memini with the Accusative means I remember distinctly and fully, generally used of an eye-witness or of a contemporary; but with a Genitive, it means to have some recollection of. With refert the Genitive depends upon re, the Ablative of res, contained in the verb, and with interest it may be a Predicate Genitive, or may simply follow the analogy of refert.

With renit in mentem, the Genitive Platonis supplies the place of subject. It probably limits the pronominal subject already contained in venit, as in every Latin verb, it or that of Plato, the recollection of Plato.

³ See foot-note 1, above.

Interest omnium recte facere, to do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestrá hoc interest, this interests you. Cio.

III. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Genitive of Value (401):

Vestrā māximē interest, it especially interests you. Cic. Quid nostrā refert, what does it concern us? Cic. Māgnī interest meā, it greatly interests ne. Cic.

IV. The OBJECT OF END for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad honorem nostrum interest, it is important for our honor. Cic.

RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

409. The Accusative of the Person and the Genirive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs:

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing: 1

Tē amīcitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship. Cic. Militēs necessitātis monet, he reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men of CRIME. Cic. Levitātis eum convincere, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvere injūriae eum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget: 2

Etrum nos miseret, we pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Consilit me paenitet, I repeat of my purpose. Cic. Me stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Genitive of the Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge; and with miseret, paenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling; see examples.

NOTE 2.—The personal verbs included under this rule retain the Genitive in the Passive:

Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason. Ned.

¹ The Genitive with verbs of reminding and admonishing may be explained like that with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting; see foot-note 1, page 214. With verbs of accusing, etc., the Genitive may also be explained in the same way, or may depend upon nomine, crimine, or jūdiciō, understood. Sometimes one of these nouns is expressed; see 410, II., 1.

² The Genitive with paenitet, pudet, etc., like that with venit in mentem (see 406, note, with foot-note), depends upon the impersonal subject contained in the verb. Thus, to have pudent means these things shame you, and mo stutitive mean pudet, literally rendered, means of my folly (i. e., the thought of it, or something about it), shames me. The Genitive with miseret may be explained either in the same way, or like that with misereor; see foot-note 1, page 214.

Note 3.—In judicial language a few verbs not otherwise so used are treated as verbs of accusing. Thus condico occurs with the Genitive in Livy, I., 32.

- 410. Special Constructions.—The following deserve notice:
- I. Verbs of Reminding and Admonishing sometimes take, instead of the Genitive—
- 1. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives:

Illud më admonës, you admonish me of THAT. Cic.

2. The Ablative with de-moneo and its compounds generally so:

De proelio vos admonui, I have reminded you of the Battle. Cic.

- II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.—
 - 1. The Genitive with nomine, crimine, jūdicio, or some similar word:

Nomine conjūrationis damnatī sunt, they were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cie. Innocentem jūdicio capitis arcessere, to arraign an innocent man on a capital charge. Cic.

2. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely:

Id mē accūsās, you accuse me of that. Plaut.

3. The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pecuniis repetundis damnatus est, he was convicted of extortion. Cic.

III. With verbs of CONDEMNING, the *Penalty* is generally expressed by the *Ablative*, or by the *Accusative with a preposition*, usually ad:

Tertia parte damnari, to be condemned to forfeit a third of one's tand. Liv. Capite damnare, to condemn to death. Cic. Morte multare, to punish with death. Cic. Ad bestias condemnare, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suct.

NOTE 1.—In the poets the penalty is sometimes expressed by the Dative:

Morti damnatus, condemned to death. Lucr.

Note 2.—The Genitive occurs in such special expressions as capitis condemnare, 'to condemn to death'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{i}$ $damn\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, 'to be condemned to fulfil a vow' = 'to obtain a wish'; $damn\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ $lang\bar{i}$ $lab\bar{o}ris$, 'to be condemned to long labor'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{i}$ $reus^2 = v\bar{v}t\bar{i}$ $damn\bar{a}tus$, 'condemned to fulfil a vow':

Aliquem capitis condemnare, to condemn one to death. Cic. Damnatus longi laboris, condemned to long labor. Hor.

IV. With Miseret, Paenitet, Pudet, Taedet, and Piget, an Infinitive or Clause is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Me paenitet vixisse, I repent having lived. Cie. Te haec pudent, these things shame you. Ter.

Note 1.—Like miseret are sometimes used miserèscit, commiserèscit, miserètur, commiserètur. Like tuedet are used pertuedet, pertuesum est.

NOTE 2.—Pudet sometimes takes the Genitive of the person before whom one is ashamed:

Mê tui pudet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pudet hominum, et is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

¹ Regularly so when the penalty is a definite sum of money.

² Best explained as a substantive.

Note 8.—Pertaesus admits the Accusative of the object:
Pertaesus Ignāviam suam, disgusted with his own inaction. Suct.

- V. Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive.1 Thus-
- 1. Some verbs of plenty and want, as complet, implet, eget, indiget, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3):

Virtus exercitationis indiget, virtue requires exercise. Cie. Auxilii egere, to need aid. Caes. Multitudinem religionis implevit, he inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. Rerum satagere, to be occupied with (to do tenough of) business. Ter.

2. Some verbs of desire, emotion, or feeling, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 1):

Cupiunt tui, they desire you. Plaut. Tui testimonii veritus, fearing your testimony. Cie. Animi 3 pendeo, I am uncertain in mind. Cie. Discrucior animi, I am troubled in spirit. Plaut. Te angis animi, you make yourself anxious in mind. Plaut. Desipere mentis, to be foolish in mind, or mistaken in opinion. Plaut.

. 3. A few verbs denoting mastery or participation, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3), potior, adipiscor, requo:

Siciliae potitus est, he became master of Sicily. Nep. Rerum adeptus est, he obtained the power. Tac. Regnavit populorum, he was king of the peoples. Hor.

4. In the poets, a few verbs a take the Genitive, instead of the Ablative of Separation or Cause (413):

Abstinere īrārum, to abstain from anger. Hor. Laborum dēcipitur, he is beguiled of his labors. Hor. Dēsine querēlārum, cease from complaints. Hor. Dēsistere pūgnae, to desist from the battle. Verg. Eum culpae līberāre, to free him from blame (i. e., to acquit him). Liv. Mīrārī laborum, to admire because of toils. Verg. Damnī Infectī promittere, to give surety in view of expected damage. Cie.

Note .- For the Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives, see 542, 1.; 544.

SECTION VII.

ABLATIVE.

- 411. The LATIN ABLATIVE performs the duties of three cases originally distinct: *
 - I. The Ablative Proper, denoting the relation from:

Expulsus est patria, he was banished from his country. Cic.

¹ Transitives of this class of course admit the Accusative with the Genitive.

² See 421, II.

Animit in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as animits is used in the same way in the plural. See foot-note on animit, 399, III., 1.

⁴ Potior takes the Genitive regularly when it means to reduce to subjection.

⁵ As abstineo, decipio, desino, desisto, levo, libero, etc.; miror, etc.

⁶ These three cases, still recognized in the Sanskrit, originally had distinct forms but in the Latin, under the influence of phonetic change and decay, these forms have

II. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, BY: Sol omnia luce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. III. The Locative, denoting the relation in, at: So oppido tenet, he keeps himself in the town. Cic.

I. ABLATIVE PROPER.

RULE XXI.-Place from which.

412. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes. De foro, from the forum. Cic. Ex Africa, from (out of) Africa. Liv.

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition: 1

Platônem Athēnīs arcēssīvit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Nep. Fūgit Corinthō, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

1. Many names of islands, and the Ablatives domō and rūre, are used like names of towns:

Domô profugit, he fled from Tome. Cic. Dēlō proficiscitur, he proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. The Ablative of places not towns is sometimes used without a preposition, especially in poetry:

Cadere nūbibus, to fall from the clouds. Verg. Labi equō, to fall from a horse. Hor.

3. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast:

Ab Ardeā Romam vēnērunt, they came from Ardea to Rome. Liv.

Note.—The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town uself, is meant:

Discessit à Brundisio, he departed from Brundisium (i. e., from the port). Caes.

RULE XXII.-Separation, Source, Cause.

413. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Separation.—Caedem a vödis depellö, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic. Hunc a tuis aris arcebis, you will keep this one from your altars

become identical, and their uses have been blended in a single case called the Ablative On the general subject of the Ablative and its use, see Merguet, pp. 109-117; Delbrück-Hübschmann, pp. 82-106; Holzweissig, pp. 28 and 75; Draeger, I., pp. 494-571; Roby T., pp. 68-115.

1 This was the original construction for all places slike

Cic. Expulsus est patrià, he was banished from his country. Cic. Urbem commeatu privavit, he deprived the city of supplies. Nep. Conatu destiterunt, they desisted from the attempt. Caes. Vagina eripe ferrum, draw your sword from its scabbard. Verg.

Source.—Hốc audivî để parente meō, I heard this from My Father. Cic. Oriundi ab Sabīnīs, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir Verg. Jove natus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

CAUSE.—Ars utilitäte laudātur, an art is praised BECAUSE OF ITS USEFULNESS. Cic. Lacrimō gaudiō, I weep for (on account of) Joy. Ter. Vestrā hōc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account. Cic. Rogātū vēneram, I had come by request. Cic. Ex vulnere aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep.

Note 1.- Transitive Verbs admit an Accusative with the Ablative; see examples.

Note 2.—The prepositions most frequently used with the Ablative of Separation and Source are \tilde{a} , ab, $d\tilde{e}$, \tilde{e} , ex, and with the Ablative of Cause, $d\tilde{e}$, \tilde{e} , ex.

NOTE 3.—With the Ablative of Separation the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: de foro, from the forum; & Asia, out of Asia; but levare meta, to relieve from fear; condit desistere, to desist from the undertaking.

NOTE 4.—For the Genitive instead of the Ablative of Separation, see 410, V., 4; and for the Dative similarly used, see 385, 2.

- 414. The ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is generally used without a preposition in the following situations:
 - I. With verbs meaning to relieve, deprive, need, be without: 1

Levà mè hōc onere, relieve me of this burden. Cic. Vinclis exsolvere, to release from chains. Plant. Molestia expedire, to relieve of trouble. Cic. Militem praeda fraudare, to defraud the soldiery of booty. Liv. Non egeo medicina, I do not need a remedy. Cic. Vacare culpa, to be free from fault. Cic. See also examples under 413.

II. With moveo in special expressions: 2

Signum movere loco, to move the standard from the place. Cic.

III. With adjectives meaning free from, destitute of:3

Animus liber cără, a mind free from care. Cic. Expers metü, rree from fear. Cic. Urbs năda pracsidio, a city destitute of defence. Cic.

Note.—For a similar use of the Genitive,4 see 399, I., 8.

IV. With opus and usus, meaning need:

¹ As expedio, exonero, levo, relevo, libero, relaxo, solvo, absolvo, exsolvo; exuo, fraudo, nudo, orbo, xpolio, priro, etc.

² As in movere loco, movere senatū, movere tribū, movere vestīgio.

³ \bar{A} or ab is generally used with names of persons and sometimes with other words.

⁴ Egēnus, indigus, sterilis, and some others are freely used with the Genitive: ser 399, I., 8.

Auctoritate tua nodis opus est, we need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Usus est tua mihi opera, I need your aid. Plaut.

NOTE 1.—In most other instances a preposition accompanies the Ablative of Separation, though often omitted in poetry and in late prose.

NOTE 2.—Opus est and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing; see examples.

Note 3.—With opus and usus, the Abiative is sometimes a perfect participle, or, with opus, a noun and a participle:

Consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation. Sail. Opus fuit Hirtio convente there was need of meeting Hirtius, Cic.

Note 4.-With opus est, rarely with usus est, the thing needed may be denoted-

1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative :

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us Cic. Temporis opus est, there is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, there is need of food. Plant.

2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est të valëre, it is necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut iavem, it is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plaut. Dictū est opus, it is necessary to be told. Ter.

415. The ABLATIVE OF SOURCE more commonly takes a preposition; see examples under 413. It includes agency, parentage, material, etc.

I. The agent or author of an action is designated by the Ablative with a or ab:

Occisus est ă Thébănis, he was slain by the Thebans. Nep. Occidit ă forti Achille, he was slain (lit., fell) by brave Achilles. Ov.

1. The Ablative without a proposition may be used of a person, regarded not as the author of the action, but as the means by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidis! firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Accusative with per may be used of the person through whose agency the action is effected:

Ab Oppianico per Fabricios 1 factum est, it was accomplished by Oppianicus theough the agency of the Fabricia. Cic.

Note 2.- For the Dative of Agent, see 388.

2. When anything is personified as agent, the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab may be used as in the names of persons:

Vincī à voluptâte, to be conquered by pleasure. Cic. Ā fortūnā datam occāsionem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.

II. Perfect Participles denoting parentage or birth—genitus, nātus, ortus, etc.—generally take the Ablative without a preposition:

Jove natus, son of Jupiter. Cic. Tantalo prognatus, descended from Tantalus. Cic. Parentibus nati humilibus, born of humble parents. Cic.

¹ Here note the distinction between the Abiative with ab (ab Oppianico), denoting the author of the action, the Accusative with per (per Fabricios), the person through whose agency the action was performed, and the Abiative alone (Numidis), the means of the action.

NOTE.—In designating REMOTE ANCESTEY, \bar{a} or ab is generally used; but after natus and ortus, the Ablatives fumilia, genere, loco, and stirpe, when modified by an adjective, omit the preposition:

Oriundi ab Sabīnīs, descended from the Subines. Liv. Orti ab Germanis, sprung from the Germans, Caes. Nobili genere natus, born of a noble family. Sail.

III. With the Ablative of Material, ē or ex is generally used, though often omitted, especially in poetry:

Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Pocula ex auro, cups of gold. Cic. Aere cavo clipeus, a shield of concave bronze. Verg. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg.

Note 1.—A special use of the Ablative, kindred to the above, is seen with facio, $f\bar{\imath}o$, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hốc homine faciās, what are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid illo fiet, what will become of him? Cic. Quid të futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

Note 2.—The Dative or the Ablative with de occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid huic homini facias, what are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic. Quid de to futurum est, what will become of you? Oic.

- 416. The ABLATIVE OF CAUSE is generally used without a preposition. It designates that by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives; 2 see examples under 413.
 - I. CAUSE is sometimes denoted-
 - 1) By the Ablative with a. ab, de, ex, prae:

Ab eadem superbia a non ventre, not to come because of the same haughtiness. Liv. Ex vulnere a aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Ex invidia laborare, to suffer from unpopularity. Cic. Non prae lacrimis seribere, not to write in consequence of tears. Cic.

2) By the Accusative with ob, per, propter:

Per aetatem inutiles, neeless because of (lit., through) their age. Caes. In oppidum propter timorem sese recipiunt, they betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes.

NOTE 1.—With transitive verbs the motive which prompts the action is often expressed by the Ablutive with a perfect passive participle:

Regnī cupiditāte inductus conjūrātionem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

NOTE 2.—That in accordance with which anything is done is often denoted by the Ablative with ê or ex:

- ¹ The Ablative of Cause is very far removed from the original meaning of the Ablative, and indeed in some of its uses was probably derived from the Instrumental Ablative; see 418.
- ² This includes such Ablatives as með jūdiciö, in accordance with my opinion; med sententiā, jussā, impulsā, monitā, etc.; causā, grātiā; also the Ablative with dēsipiō, doleō, exsiliō, exsultō, gaudeo, labōro, lacrimō, laetor, triumphō, etc.
 - 3 See note 2, foot-note.
- 4 Here cupiditate must be construed with inductus, yet it really expresses the cause of the action, fecit.

Rés ex foedere repetuntur, restitution is demanded in accordance with the treaty. Liv. Diés ex praeceptis tuls àctus, a day passed in accordance with your precepts. Cic. Ex vêritâte aestimāre, to estimate in accordance with the truth. Cic, Ex auctoritâte 4 senātūs confirmāre, to ratify on the authority of the senātūs confirmāre, to ratify on the authority of the senatus. Liv.

RULE XXIII.-Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est melius bonitūte, what is better than goodness? Cic. Scimus sōlem mājōrem esse terrā, we know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear. Cic. Potiōrem īrā salūtem habet, he regards safety as better than anger. Liv.

1. Comparatives with Quam are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimatur, Ireland is considered smaller than Britain. Caes. Agris quam urbi terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abservation. The Ablative is freely used for quam with a Subject Nominative or Subject Accusative—regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the fourth example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

Note 2.—After plus, minus, umplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; 4 sometimes

also after major, minor, etc. :

Tecum plus annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus duo milia, less than two thousand. Liv.

Note 3.—Instead of the Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case, as ante, prae, praeter, or suprā, is sometimes used:

Ante alioa immanior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Verg.

NOTE 4.—ALIUS, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative.

- ¹ These and similar Ablatives with prepositions show the transition from source to cause, and illustrate the manner in which the latter was developed from the former. The Δblative with the preposition seems in general to retain something of the idea of source.
- ² This Ablative furnishes the *standard* of comparison—that from which one starts. Flus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. This Ablative is sometimes explained as instrumental (418), but that view is controverted by a similar use of the Greek Genitive, which does not contain the instrumental Ablative, and of the Sanskrit Ablative, which is often distinct from the instrumental.
- 3 Virtūte = quam virtūs; bonitūte = quam bonitūs; terrū = quam terram 'so. esse).
- 4 So in expressions of age: nātus plūs trīgintā annās, having been born more than thirty years. The same meaning is also expressed by mājor trīgintā annās nātus, mājor trīgintā annās nātus, mājor trīgintā annārum.

Quaerit alia his, he seeks other things than these. Plaut. Alius sapiente, other than a wise man. Hor.

Note 5.—Quam $pr\tilde{o}$ denotes disproportion, and many Ablatives— $opini\tilde{o}ne$, $sp\tilde{e}$, $aequ\tilde{o}$, $j\tilde{u}st\tilde{o}$, $solit\tilde{o}$, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses:

Minor caedes quam pro victoria, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Serius spē vēnit, he came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plūs aequo, more than is fuir. Cic.

2. With Comparatives, the MEASURE of DIFFERENCE, the amount by which one thing surpasses another, is denoted by the Ablative:

Hibernia dimidio minor quam Britannia, Ireland smaller by one half than Britain. Caes.

II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

418. The Instrumental Ablative denotes both Accompaniment and Means.²

RULE XXIV.-Ablative of Accompaniment.

419. The Ablative is used—

I. To denote ACCOMPANIMENT. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vivit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus. Cic. Cum gladis stant, they stand with swords (i. e., armed with swords). Cic.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest virtūte. Caes. Quīdam māgnō capite, ōre rubicundō, māgnīs pedibus, a certain one with a large head, with a red face, and with large feet. Plaut. Catilīna ingeniō malō fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall. Ūrī sunt speciē taurī, the urus is (lit., the uri are) of the appearance of a bull. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative, when used to denote characteristic or quality, may be called either the Descriptive Ablative or the Ablative of Characteristic.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

¹ See 423.

² The idea of means was probably developed from that of accompaniment, as seen in such expressions as cum omnibus copils sequitire, he pursues with all his forces — accompaniment, which readily suggests means, as he employs his forces as means; equis iverunt, they went with horses — accompaniment and means. Some scholars have conjectured that originally accompaniment and means were expressed by separate case-forms, but of this there seems to be little proof

³ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative—the first designating an attendant person or thing—with Balbus, with swords; the second, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue; the third, an attend

Cum virtute vixit, he lived vietuously. Cic. Summā vi proelium com mīsērunt, they joined battle with the greatest violence. Nep. Duōbus modīs fit, it is done in two ways. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative of manner sometimes takes cum even when modified by an adjective:

Magna cum cura scripsit, he wrote with great care. Cic.

NOTE 2.—But the Ablative of a few words is sometimes used without cum, even then unattended by an adjective, as jūre, 'rightly'; injūriā, 'unjustly'; ordine, 'in an orderly manner'; ratione, 'systematically'; silentio, 'in silence,' etc.¹

NOTE 8.—Per, with the Accusative, sometimes denotes MANNER: per vim, 'violently'; per ludum, 'sportively.'

- 1. On the ABLATIVE OF ACCOMPANIMENT, observe-
- 1) That cum is often omitted—(1) especially when the Ablative is qualified by an adjective, and (2) after jungō, misceō, and their compounds:

Ingenti exercitu profectus est, he set out with a large army. Liv. Improbitas scelere juncta, depravity joined with crime. Cic.

2) That the Ablative with cum is often used of hostile encounters:

Cum Gallis certare, to fight with the Gauls. Sall. Nobiscum hostes contenderunt, the enemy contended with us. Cic.

Note.-For the Dative with verbs denoting union or contention, see 385, 4, 3).

- 2. On the Descriptive Ablative, as compared with the Descriptive Genetive, observe—
- 1) That in descriptions involving size and number, the Genitive is used; see examples under 396, V.
- 2) That in most descriptions involving external characteristics, parts of the body, and the like, the Ablative is used, as in the second and fourth examples under 419, II.
 - 3) That in other instances either case may be used.
- 4) That the Ablative, like the Genitive, may be used either with nouns, as in the first and second examples under 419, II., or with verbs in the predicate, as in the other examples.

RULE XXV.-Ablative of Means.

420. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves WITH THEIR HORNS. Cic. Glöriā dūcitur, he is led by glory. Cic. Sõl omnia lūce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Lacte vīvunt, they live upon milk. Caes Tellūs saucia vomeribus, the earth turned (wounded) with the ploughshare. Ovid.

ant circumstance—to live with virtue, virtuously. Compare cum Balbo vivere and sum virtuite vivere.

¹ But perhaps most Ablatives which never take *cum* are best explained as the Ablative of *cause*—as *lēge*, 'according to law'; *cōnsuētūdine*, 'according to custom'; *cōnsuētūdine*, 'according to custom'; *cōnsuētūd*, 'on purpose,' etc.

Note.—This Ablative is of frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives.

- 1. The following expressions deserve notice:
- 1) Quadraginta hostils sacrificare, to sacrifice with forty victims. Liv. Facere vitula, to make a sacrifice of (lit., with) a female calf. Verg.
- Fidibus cantăre, to play upon a stringed instrument. Cic. Pilă ludere, to play at ball (lit., with the ball). Hor.
- 3) Aurėlia via proficisci, to set out by the Aurelian way. Cic. Eodem itinere ire, to go by the same road. Liv. Esquilina porta ingredi, to enter by he Esquiline gate. Liv.
- 4) Virtute pracditus, possessed of virtue. Cic. Legiones pulchris armis praedites, legions furnished with beautifut arms. Plant.
- 2. Adfició with the Ablative forms a very common circumlocution: honore adficere = honorare, to honor; admiratione adficere = admirati, to admire; posna adficere = púnire, to punish, etc:

Omnes lactitia adficit, he gladdens all. Cic.

RULE XXVI.-Ablative in Special Constructions.

421. The Ablative is used—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rēbus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Māgnā est praedā potītus, he obtained great booty. Nep. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived upon milk and flesh. Sall.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, easeō, melle; the villa abounds in Milk, cheese, and honey. Cic. Urbs referta copiùs, a city filled with supplies. Cic. Virtute praeditus, endowed with virtue. Cic. Deus bonis explèvit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings. Cic.

III. With dignus, indignus,2 and contentus:

Digni sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic. Vir patre dignus, a man worthy of his father. Cic. Honore indignissimus, most unworthy of honor. Cic. Nātūra parvo contenta, nature content with little. Cic.

Note 1.—Transitive verbs of Plenty 3 take the Accusative and Ablative:

Armis navės onerat, he loads the ships with arms. Sall. See also the last example under 421, II.

Note 2.—Dignor, as a Pussive verb meaning 'to be deemed worthy,'

- ¹ This Ablative is readily explained as the Ablative of means: thus, inter, 'I use,' 'I serve myself by means of'; fruor, 'I enjoy,' 'I delight myself with'; vescor, 'I feed upon,' 'I feed myself with,' etc.
- ² The nature of the Ablative with *dignus* and *indignus* is somewhat uncertain. On etymological grounds it is explained as *instrumental*; see Delbrück, p. 72; Corssen 'Krit, Beitr.,' p. 47.
- ³ Transitive verbs of plenty mean 'to fill,' 'to furnish with,' etc., as cumulo, com pleo, impleo, instruo, onero, orno, etc.

takes the Ablative; but as a Deponent verb meaning 'to deem worthy,' used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honore dignati sunt, they have been deemed worthy of honor. Cic. Medignor honore, I deem myself worthy of honor. Verg.

NOTE 3 .- Dignus and indignus occur with the Genitive:

Dignus salūtis, worthy of safety. Piaut. Indignus avorum, unworthy of their ancestors. Verg.

Note 4.— $\bar{U}tor$, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, originally transitive, are occasionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense. $\bar{U}tor$ admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Me ütetur patre, he will find (use) me a father. Ter.

NOTE 5.—For the Genitive with potior, see 410, V., 3. For the Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty, and for the Accusative and Genitive with transitive verbs of plenty, see 410, V., 1, with foot-note, and 399, I., 3.

RULE XXVII.-Ablative of Price.

422. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vēndidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for Gold. Verg. Condūxit māgno domum, he hired a house at a high price. Cic. Multō sanguine Poenīs vīctōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quīnquāgintā talentīs aestimārī, to be valued at fifte talents. Nep. Vile est vīgintī minīs, it is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

Note 1.—The Ablative of Price is used (1) with verbs of buying, selling, hiring letting; (2) of costing, of being cheap or dear; 1 (3) of valuing; (4) with adjectives of value.

Note 2.—With verbs of Exchanging—mūtō, commūtō, etc.—(1) the thing receivea is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but (2) sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Abiative with cum:

Pâce bellum mûtăvit, he exchanged war for peace. Sall. Exsilium patrià mûtăvit, he exchanged his country for exile. Curt. Cum patriae aritate gloriam commutaivit, he exchanged love of country for glory. Cic.

Note 3 .- For the Genitive of Price, see 405.

RULE XXVIII.-Ablative of Difference.

423. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Uno die longiorem mensem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduo me antecessit, he preceded me by two days. Cic. Sol multis partibus major est quam terra, the sun is very much (lit., by many parts) larger than the earth. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place: multum robustior, 'much more robust.'

Note 2.—The Ablative of difference includes the Ablative of distance (379, 2), and the Ablative with ante, post, and abhine in expressions of time (430).

¹ As sto, consto, liceo, sum, etc.; carus, vēnālis, etc

RULE XXIX.—Specification.

424. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agēsilāus nomine, non potestāte fuit rēx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power. Nep. Claudus altero pede, lame in one foot. Nep. Mori bus similēs, similar in character. Cic. Reliquos Gallos virtūte praecēdunt, they surpass the other Gauls in courage. Caes.

NOTE 1.—This Ablative shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name.

NOTE 2 .- For the Accusative of Specification, see 378.

III. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

RULE XXX.-Place in which.

425. The Place in which is denoted—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative' with the preposi-

Hannibal in Îtaliă fuit, Hannibal was IN ITALY. Nep. In nostrīs castrīs, in our camp. Caes. In Appiā viā, on the Appian way. Cic.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS by the Locative, if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:

Rômae fuit, he was at Rôme. Cic. Corinthi pueros docebat, he taugh boys at Corinth. Cic. Athēnis fuit, he was at Athens. Cic. Hốc facis Argis, you do this at Argos. Hor. Karthāgine rēgēs creābantur, kings were elected (created) at Carthage. Nep. Gādibus vixit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

NOTE.—For the construction with verbs meaning to collect to come together, and with those meaning to place, see 380, note.

- 1. In the names of places which are not towns, the LOCATIVE ABLATIVE is often used without a preposition:
- 1) When the idea of means, manner, or cause is combined with that of place: **

Castris sè tenuit, he kept himself in camp. Caes. Aliquem tèctò recipere, to receive any one in one's own house. Cie. Iroeliò cadere, to fall in battle. Caes. Adulèscentibus dèlectàri, to take pleasure in the young. Cic. Sua

¹ The learner will remember that the *Locative Ablative* does not differ in *form* from any other Ablative; see 411.

² Sec 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4. The Locative was the original construction in all names of places.

³ In some cases place and means are so combined that it is difficult to determine which is the original conception.

victoria gloriantur, they glory in their victory. Caes. Nullo efficio assucfact, trained in no duty. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative is generally used with fido, confido, nitor, innitor, and fretus: Nemo fortune stabilitate confidit, no one trusts (confides in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Salus veritate nititur, safety rests upon truth. Cic. Fretus amīcīs, relying upon his friends. Liv.

2) When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Nova pectore versat consilia, she derises (turns over) new plans in her breast. Verg. Stare jūdiciis, to abide by (stand in) the decisions. Cic. Promissis manere, to remain true to promises (lit., remain in). Verg. Pendere animis, to be perplexed in mind. Cic. Intimis sensibus angi, to be troubled in one's inmost feelings. Cic. Ferox bello, valiant in war. Hor. Jüre peritus, skilled in law. Jic.

2. The Ablatives loco, locos, parte, partibus, dextrā, laevā, and sinistrā are often used without the preposition. Terrā and marī and Ablatives with tōtus are generally so used.

Aliquid loco ponere, to put anything in its place. Cic. Terra marique, on land and sea. Liv. Tota Graccia, in all Greece. Nep.

Note 1.—The Ablative $libr\tilde{o}$, 'book,' generally takes the preposition when used of a portion of a work, but omits it when used of an entire treatise:

In eō librō, in this book (referring to a portion of the work). Cic. Allō librō, in another work. Cic.

Note 2.—Other Ablatives sometimes occur without the preposition, especially when qualified by omnis, medius, or universus:

Omnibus oppidīs, in all the towns. Caes.

Note 8.-In poetry the Locative Ablative is often used without the preposition:

Lucis opācis, in shady groves. Verg. Silvis agrisque, in the forests and fields. Ov. Theatris, in the theatres. Hor. Ferre umero, to bear upon the shoulder. Verg.

- 3. ABLATIVE FOR THE LOCATIVE.—Instead of the Locative in names of towns the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition—
- When the proper name is qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun: In ipsā Alexandriā,² in Alexandria itself. Cic. Longā Albā, at Alba Longa. Verg.
 - 2) Sometimes when not thus modified:

In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv. In Alexandriā, at Alexandria. Liv.

Note.—The following special constructions deserve notice:

In oppido Citio, in the town Citium. Nep. Albae, in urbe opportună, at Alba, a convenient city. Cic.

- ¹ In the singular animi is generally used, a Locative probably both in form and in signification; see p. 211, foot-note 4.
 - ² At Alexandria would regularly be expressed by the Locative, Alexandriae.
- 3 Here Citië is in apposition with appidē, the usual construction in such cases, though a Genitive limiting appidē occurs: in oppidē Antiochiae, in the city of Antioch. Cic.
- 4 A Locative may thus be followed by in urbe, or in oppido, modified by an adjective; but see 363, 4, 2). The preposition in is sometimes omitted.

426. LIKE NAMES OF TOWNS are used—

1. Many NAMES OF ISLANDS:

Lesbī vīxit, he lived in Leshos. Nep. Conon Cyprī vīxit, Conon lived in Cyprus. Nep.

2. The Locatives domi, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, and bellī:

Domī mīlitiaeque, at home and in the field. Cic. Rūrī agere vītam, to spend life in the country. Liv.

Note. - A few other Locatives also occur:

Römae Numidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall. Domum Chersonësi habuit he had a house in the Chersonesus. Nep. Truncum reliquit arënae, he left the body in the sand. Verg.

427. Summary.—The Names of Places not towns are generally put—

I. In the Accusative with ad or in, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

In Asiani redit, he returns to (into) Asia. Nep.

II. In the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex, to denote the PLACE FROM WHICH: Ab urbe proficiseitur, he sets out from the city. Caes.

III. In the Locative Ablative with in, to denote the PLACE AT OF IN WHICH: Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep.

Note.-For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 3 and 4: 412, 2; 425, 1 and 2.

428. Summary.—The Names of Towns are put 2-

I. In the Accusative, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

Nuntius Romain redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

IJ. In the Ablative, to denote the PLACE FROM WHICH:

Fügit Corintho, he fled from Corinth. Cie.

III. In the Locative, or in the Locative Ablative, 3 to denote the PLACE AT OF IN WHICH:

Corinthi pueros docebat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Gadibus vixit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.-For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 1; 412, 3; 425, 8.

RULE XXXI.-Time.

429. The TIME of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year. Cic. Vêre convenere, they assembled in the spring. Liv. Natali die suo, on his birth-

¹ So also terrae and riciniae.

² This, the original construction for all names of places, has been retained unchanged only in the names of towns and in a few other words. Most names of places have assumed a preposition with the Accusative and Ablative, and have substituted the Locative Ablative with a preposition in place of the Locative; see 411, 111.

³ That is, the Locative is used if any such form exists; if not, the Locative Abiative supplies its place

day. Nep. Hieme et aestate, in winter and summer. Cic. Solis occasu, at sunsct. Caes. Adventu Caesaris, on the arrival of Caesar. Caes. Ludis, at the time of the games. Cic. Vix decem annis, searcely in ten years. Nep. His vigintu anuis, within these twenty years. Cic.

1. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Ablative with in or de:

In tall tempore, at such a time (i. e., under such circumstances). Liv. In diebus proximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall. De media nocte, in (lit., from, out of) the middle of the night. Caes.

2. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Accusative with ad, in, inter, intrā, sub, etc.:

Ad constitutam diem, at the appointed day. Cic. Ad conam invitare in posterum diem, to invite to dinner for the next day. Cic. Intra viginti dies, within twenty days. Plaut. Inter tot annos, within so many years. Cic. Sub noctem, toward night. Caes.

430. The Interval between two events may be denoted by the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post:²

Aliquot post mēnsēs 3 occīsus est, he was put to death some months after. Cic. Post diēs paucēs vēnit, he came after a few days. Liv. Paucīs ante diēbus, 3 a few days before. Cic. Homērus annīs multīs fuit ante Rōmulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Paucīs diēbus post ējus mortem, a few days after his death. Cic. Annīs quingentīs post, five hundred years after. Cic. Quārtum post annum quam redierat, four years after he had returned. Nep. Nōnō annō postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sextō annō quam erat expulsus, sic years after he had been banished. Nep.

Note 1 .- In these examples observe-

1) That the numeral may be either cardinal, as in the sixth example, or ordinal, as in the last three.4

2) That with the Accusative ante and post either precede the numeral and the noun, or stand between them; but that with the Ablative they either follow both, or stand between them.⁵

3) That quam may follow ante and post, as in the seventh example; may be united with them, as in the eighth, or may be used for postquum, as in the ninth.

NOTE 2.—The ABLATIVE OF THE RELATIVE may be used for postquam:

Quatriduo, quo occisus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

- ¹ The Ablative with in is used to denote (1) the circumstances of the time, and (2) the time in or within which. In the second sense it is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in $di\bar{e}$, 'twice in the day'; in pueritiā, 'in boyhood,' etc.
- 2 In two instances the Ablative with abhinc is used like the Ablative with ante: Abhlnc trigintä diebus, thirty days before. Cic.

³ The Accusative after ante and post depends upon the preposition, but the Ablative is explained as the measure of difference (423).

- 4 Thus, 'five years after' = quinque annis post, or quinto anno post; or post quinque annos, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.
 - 4 Any other arrangement is rare.

NOTE 3.—The time since an event may be denoted by the Accusative with abbline of onts, or by the Ablative with ante: 1

Abhine annos trecentos suit, he lived three hundred years ago. Cic. Paucis ant liebus crupit ex urbe, he broke out of the city a few days ago. Cic.

RULE XXXII.—Ablative Absolute.

431. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cic. Rēgibus exāctīs, cōnsulēs creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings, consule were appointed. Liv. Equitātū praemissō, subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. Rēgnum haud satis prōsperum neglēctā rěligiōne, a reign not sufficiently prosperous because religion was neglected. Liv. Perditīs rēbus omnibus tamen virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though all things are lost, still virtue is able to sustain itself. Cic. Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduīs trādit, having de manded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui. Caes.

- 1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nomins cive Absolute, generally expresses the time, cause, or some attendant circum stance of an action.
- 2. This Ablative is generally best rendered—(1) by a noun with a preposition—in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.; (2) by an active participte with its object; or (3) by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; see examples above.
 - 3. A connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Nisi munitis castris, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes.

4. A noun and an adjective, or even two nouns, may be in the Ablative-Absolute:

¹ The Accusative is explained as duration of time (379), the Ablative as measure of difference (423).

² This Ablative is called absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. Originally Locative, it was first used to denote situation or time, a meaning from which its later uses may be readily derived. Thus, while the force of a Locative Ablative is apparent in Servio regnante and in regibus exacts, it is recognized without difficulty in neglecta religione as indicating the situation or state of things in which the reign was not prosperous. In some instances, however, the Ablative Absolute may be instrumental or causal.

³ Or, while Servius was reigning or was king,

Or, after the kings were banished.

In this example obsidibus and hos refer to the same persons. This is unusual, as in this construction the Ablative generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs.

⁶ The first method of translation comes nearer the original Latin conception, but the other methods generally accord better with the English idiom.

⁷ This construction is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding constructions in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb 'to be' is used.

Serēno caelo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Caninio consule, in the consultable of Caninius. Cio.

NOTE 1.—An infinitive or clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Audītō Dārīum mōvisse, pērgit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., baving been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multi, incertō quid vitārent, intericrunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain) perished. Liv.

Note 2 .- A participle or adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Muitum certato, pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle.1 Tac.

Note 3.—Quisque or ipse in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:
Multis sibi quisque petentibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall. Causă
ipse prò sē dictà damnatur, having himself advocated his own cause, he is con-

demned. Liv.

Note 4.—For the use of absente and praesente in the Ablative Absolute with a plural noun or pronoun, see 438, 6, note.

SECTION VIII.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXXIII.—Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions:

Ad amīcum scrīpsī, I have written to a friend. Cic. In cūriam, into the senate-house. Liv. In İtaliā, in Italy. Nep. Prō castrīs, before the camp.

433. The Accusative is used with-

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circã, circum, circiter, cis, citrã, contrã, ergã, extrã, Infrã, inter, intrã, juxtã, ob, penes, per, pone, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprã, trâns, ültrã, versus:

Ad urbem, to the city. Cic. Adversus deos, toward the gods. Cic. Ante lucem, before light. Cic. Apud concilium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circa forum, around the forum. Cic. Citra flumen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contra naturam, contrary to nature. Cic. Intra muros, within the walls. Cic. Post castra, behind the camp. Caes. Secundum naturam, according to nature. Cic. Trans Alpes, across the Alps. Cic.

Note 1 .- Exadversus (um) also occurs with the Accusative:

Exadversus eum locum, over against that place. Cic. See also 437.

Note 2.-Versus~(um) and usque, as adverbs, often accompany prepositions, especially ad and in:

Ad oceanum versus, toward the ocean. Caes. Ad meridiem versus, toward the south. Liv. Usque ad castra hostinm, even to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

¹ Literally, it having been much contested. The participle is used impersonally

² On the general subject of Prepositions and their Use, see Roby, II., pp. 851-456.
Praeger, I., pp. 574-665; Kühner II., pp. 855-432.

NOTE 8.—For propius, proxime, propior, and proximus, with the Accusative, see prope, note 2, under I., below.

Note 4 .- For compounds of prepositions, see 372 and 376.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Accusative deserve notice:

Ad, to, the opposite of ab, from—(1) to, toward, till; (2) NEAR, At, on: 2d m2, 'to me,' 'near me,' 'at my house'; ad urbem, 'to the city,' 'near the city'; ad dextram, 'on the right'; ad multam noctem, 'till late in the night'; ad lūcem, 'till daybreak'; ad hbc, 'besides this,' 'moreover'; ad verbum, 'word for word'; ad hunc modum, 'after this manner'; ad ūltimum, 'at last'; ad ūnum omuže, 'all to a man,' 'all without exception.'

Apud, NEAR, AT, BEFORE, IN THE PRESENCE OF: apud oppidum, 'near or before the town'; apud mē, 'at my house'; sum apud mē, 'I am at home' or 'I am in my right mind'; apud Platonem, 'in the works of Plato.'

Ante, BEFORE, IN FRONT OF, ABOVE, IN PREFERENCE TO: ante suos annos, 'before his time,' 'too early'; ante tempus, 'before the proper time'; ante annum, 'a year before'; ante urbem conditum, 'before the founding of the city'; ante alios pulcherrimus omnes, 'the most beautiful above all others.'

Circum, circa, circiter, ROUND, AROUND, ABOUT: circum forum, 'around the forum'; circa se, 'around or with himself'; circa eandem horam, 'about the same hour'; circiter meridiem, 'about midday.'

Note.—Circum, the oldest of these forms, is used only of place; circā, both of place and of time; circiter, rare as a preposition, chiefly of time. They are all freely used as adverbs: circum convenire, 'to gather around'; circā esse, 'to be around', circiter pars quarta, 'about the fourth part.'

Cis, citrā, on this side—cis opposed to trāns, across, on the other side; citrā opposed to ūltrā, beyond: cis flumen, on this side of the stream; cis paucos dies, within a few days; citrā vēritātem, short of the truth; citrā auctoritātem, without authority.

Contrā, opposite to, over against, against, contrary to: contrā eās regiones, 'opposite to those regions'; contrā populum, 'against the people'; contrā pātūram, 'contrary to nature.'

Ergā, Toward, To, Against: ergā parentēs, 'toward parents'; odium ergā Romānos, 'hatred to the Romans'; ergā rēgem, 'against the king.'

Extrā, outside, without, free from, except: extrā portam, coutside the gate'; extrā culpum, 'without fault,' 'free from fault'; extrā ducem, 'except the leader,' besides the leader.'

Infrā, below, under, beneath, less than, after, later than, opposed to suprā, above: infrā lūnam, beneath the moon; infrā mē, below me; infrā trēs pedēs, less than three feet; infrā Lycūrgum, after Lycurgus.

1 For the form and meaning of prepositions in composition, see 344, 5.

² These three forms are all derived from circus, 'a circle' (i. c., from its stem); ace 304; 307, note 1.

3 These are often adverbs.

4 According to Vanicek, from \tilde{e} and the root reg in $reg\tilde{o}$; 'in the direction of' (lit. from the direction of). In Tacitus, cometimes in relation to: $erg\tilde{a}$ domum snam 'verlation to his own household.'

Infra = infera parts 'to the lower part

Inter,' Between, among, in the mider of: inter urbem et Tiberim, 'between the city and the Tiber'; inter bonos, 'among the good'; inter manus, 'in the hands,' 'within reach,' 'tangible'; inter nos, 'between us,' 'in confidence'; inter se differe, 'to love one another'; inter se differe, 'to differ from one another'; inter paucos, inter pauco, 'especially,' 'preëminently'; inter paucos disertus, 'preëminently eloquent'; inter purpuram atque aurum, 'in the midst of purple and gold.'

Intrā, within, less than, below, opposed to extrā, on the outside, withiout: intrā castra, 'within the camp'; intrā mē, 'within me'; intrā sē, 'in his mind' or 'in their minds'; intrā centum, 'less than one hundred' intrā modum, 'within the limit'; intrā fāmam, 'below his reputation.'

Ob, BEFORE, IN VIEW OF, IN REGARD TO, ON ACCOUNT OF: ob oculos, 'before one's eyes'; ob stultitiam tuam, 'in view of your folly,' or 'in regard to your folly'; ob hanc rem, 'in view of this thing,' 'for this reason,' 'on this account'; quam ob rem, 'in view of which thing,' wherefore.'

Per, THROUGH, BY THE AID OF: per forum, 'through the forum'; per alios, 'through others,' by the aid of others'; per se, 'by his own efforts,' also 'in himself,' 'in itself'; per metum, 'through fear'; per aetatem, 'in consequence of age'; per ladum, 'sportively'; per vim, 'violently'; per me licet, 'it is allowable as far as I am concerned' (i. e., I make no opposition).

Post, Behind, After, Since: post montem, 'behind the mountain'; post dedicationem templi, 'after the dedication of the temple'; post kominum nemoriam, 'since the memory of man.'

Practer, 5 Before, Alono, Past, BY, Beyond, Besides, Except, contrary to: practer oculos, 'before their eyes'; practer oram, 'along the coast'; practer ceteros, 'beyond others,' 'more than others'; practer have = practer-ed, 'besides these things,' 'moreover'; practer me, 'except me'; practer spem, 'contrary to expectation.'

Prope, propter, NEAR, NEAR BY. Prope, NEAR; propter = propeter, a strengthened form of prope, VERY NEAR, ALONGSIDE OF, also IN VIEW OF, ON ACCOUNT OF: prope hostes, 'near the enemy'; prope metum, 'near to fear,' 'almost fearful'; propter mare, 'near the sea'; propter timorem, 'on account of fear'; propter se, 'on his own account,' 'on their own account.'

NOTE 1.—Prope, as an adverb, is sometimes combined with \bar{a} , ab, or ad: prope \bar{a} Sicilia, 'near Sicily,' 'not far from Sicily'; prope ad portas, 'near to the gates.'

NOTE 2.—Like prope, the derivatives propius and proxime, and sometimes even propior and proximus, admit the Accusative:

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Proxime deos, very near to the gods.

¹ Formed from in by the ending ter, like practer from prac (434, L), propter from prope (433, L), and sub-ter from sub (435, L).

² Often equivalent to in meō animō, 'in my mlnd.'

Sometimes, in his country, or in their country.

⁴ In origin kindred to the Greek παρά.

⁵ Formed from prae (434, I.), like in-ter from in; see inter, with foot-note.

[·] See inter, with foot-note.

Perhaps by a construction according to sense, following the analogy of prope, though in most cases a preposition may readily be supplied.

Cic. Propior montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the

Secundum, Following, NEXT AFTER, NEXT BEHIND, ALONGSIDE OF, CONFORMING TO, ACCORDING TO, IN FAVOR OF: secundum āram, 'behind the altar'; secundum deōs, 'next after the gods'; secundum lādōs, 'after the games'; secundum fāmen, 'along the river'; secundum nātūram, 'according to nature,' 'following nature'; secundum causam nostram, 'in favor of our cause.'

Suprā, ON THE TOP, ABOVE, BEFORE, TOO HIGH FOR; opposed to infrā, SELOW: suprā lūnam, 'above the moon'; suprā hanc memoriam, 'before our time'; suprā hominem, 'too high for a man.'

Trans, across, on the other side, opposed to cis, on this side: trans Rhènum, 'across the Rhine'; trans Alpès, 'on the other side of the Alps.'

Ultrā, BEYOND, AGROSS, ON THE OTHER SIDE, MORE THAN, LONGER THAN, AFTER, opposed to citrā, on this side: ültrā eum locum, 'beyond that place'; ültrā eum, 'beyond him'; ültrā pīgnus, 'more than a pledge'; ültrā fidem, 'beyond belief,' 'incredible'; ültrā pueriles annōs, 'after (beyond) the years of boyhood.'

434. The ABLATIVE is used with-

Äor ab (abs), absque, coram, cum, dö, 6 or ex, prae, pro, sine, tenus.

Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Coram conventa, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Cum Antiocho, with Antiochus. Cic. De foro, from the forum. Cic. Ex Asia, out of Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heart. Cic.

Note i.—Many verbs compounded with ab, $d\bar{e}$, $e\alpha$, or super admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition, but the preposition is often repeated, or some other preposition of kindred meaning is used:

Abire magistrătă, to retire from office. Tac. Păgnă excedunt, they retire from the battle. Caes. De vită decedere, to depart from life. Cic. Decedere ex Asiă, to depart out of Asia. Cic.

NOTE 2.— \vec{A} and \vec{e} are used only before consonants, ab and ex before either vowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before $t\hat{e}$,

Note 8.—For cum appended to the Abiative of a personal pronoun or of a relative, see 184, 6, and 187, 2.

NOTE 4.—Tenus follows its case. In its origin it is the Accusative of a noun, and as such it often takes the Genitive:

Colio tenus, up to the neck. Ov. Lumborum tenus, as fur as the loins. Cle.

Properly the neuter of secundus, 'following,' second'; but secundus is a gerundive from sequor, formed like dicundus from dico (239). For the change of qu to c before u in sec-undus for sequ-undus, see 26, foot-note,

Like the adjective *ecundus in ventus *ecundus*, 'a favoring wind '-one that follows on our course; fumine *ecundo*, 'with a favoring current' (i. e., down the stream).

³ Suprā = superā parte, 'on the top.'

⁴ Literally, before this memory. For hic meaning my or our, see 450, 4, note 1.

⁵ Though in such cases the first element of the compound is not strictly a preposition, but an adverb (344, with foot-note). Thus, in $d\hat{e}$ ritā dēcēdere, $d\hat{e}$ in the verb retains its adverbial force, so that, strictly speaking, the preposition is used only once.

From the root tan, ten, seen in ten-do, ten-co, and in the Greek τειν-ω.

Note 5.—For the Ablative with or without $d\ell$, as used with facto, fio, and sum, see £15, III., note.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Ablative deserve notice:

A, ab, abs, from, by, in, on, on the side of. 1. Of Place; from, on, on the side of: ā Galliā, 'from Gaul'; ab ortū, 'from the east'; ā fronte, 'in front' (lit., from the front); ā tergō, 'in the rear'; ab Sēquanīs, 'on the side toward the Sequani.' 2. Of Time; from, after: ab hōrā tertiā, 'from the third hour'; ā puerō, 'from boyhood'; ab cohortātiōne, 'after exhorting.' 3. In other relations; from, by, in, against: ā poenā līber, 'free from punishment'; missus ab Syrācūsīs, 'sent by the Syracusans'; ab equitātā firmus, 'strong in (lit., from) cavalry'; ab animō aeger, 'diseased in mind'; ab eīs dēfendere, 'to defend against (from) them'; esse ab aliquō, 'to be on one's side'; ā nobīr, 'in our interest'; servus ā pedibus, 'a footman.'

Note.-Absque, rare in classical prose, is found chiefly in Plautus and Terence.

Cum, with, in most of its English meanings: cum patre habitāre, 'to live with one's father'; Cuesar cum quinque legionibus, 'Caesar with five legions'; consul cum summo imperio, 'the consul with supreme command'; servus cum telo, 'a slave with a weapon,' 'an armed slave'; cum primā tūce, 'with the early dawn; 'at the early dawn'; consentīre cum aliquo, 'to agree with any one'; cum Caesare agere, 'to treat with Caesar'; cum aliquo dīmicāre, 'to contend with any one'; multis cum lacrimīs, 'with many tears'; cum virtūte, 'virtuously'; cum eō ut, or cum eō quod, 'with this condition that,' 'on condition that.' See also 419, III.

Dē, down from, from, of. 1. Of Place; down from, from: de caeló, 'down from heaven'; de foró, 'from the forum'; de mājūribus audīre, 'to hear from one's elders.' 2. Of Time; from, out of, during, in, at, after: de prandiō, 'from breakfast'; de die, 'by day,' 'in the course of the day'; de tertiā vigiliā, 'during the third watch'; de mediā nocte, 'at about midnight.' 3. In other relations; from, of, for, on, concerning, according to: de summō genere, 'of the highest rank'; factum de marmore signum, 'a bust made of marble'; homō de plebe, 'a man of plebeian rank,' 'a plebeian'; triumphus de Galliā, 'a triumph over (concerning) Gaul'; gravī de causā, 'for a grave reason'; de more vetustō, 'according to ancient custom'; de intustriā, 'on purpose'; de integrō, 'anew.' See also 415, III., note 2.

E, ex,3 out of, from. 1. Of Place; out of, from, in, on: ex urbe, 'from the city,' out of the city'; ex equō pūgnāre, 'to fight on horseback'; ex rinculīs, 'in chains' (lit., out of or from chains); ex itinere, 'on the march.' 2. Of Time; from, directly after, since: ex eð tempore, 'from that time'; ex tempore dicere, 'to speak extemporaneously'; diem ex die, 'from day to day.' 3. In other relations; from, out of, of, according to, on account of, through: ex vulneribus perire, 'to perish of (because of) wounds'; ūnus this, 'one of the sons'; ex commūtātione, 'on account of the change'; ex consuētūdine, 'according to custom'; è vestīgio, 'on the spot'; ex parte māgnā, 'in great part'; ex improvīsō, 'unexpectedly.'

^{&#}x27; Greek árá. ' Compare Greek fúv. σύν. with ' Compare Greek ik out of

Prae, BEFORE, IN COMPARISON WITH, IN CONSEQUENCE OF, BECAUSE OF: 1 prae manū esse, 'to be at hand'; prae manū habēre, 'to have at hand'; prae se ferre, 'to show, display, exhibit'; prae nōbīs beātus, 'happy in comparison with us'; nōn prae lucrimīs 1 posse, 'not to be able because of tears.'

Prō, BEFFRE; IN BEHALF OF, IN DEFENCE OF, FOR; INSTEAD OF, AS; IN RETURN FOR, FOR; ACCORDING TO, IN PROPORTION TO: prō castrīs, 'before the camp'; prō lībertāte, 'in defence of liberty'; prō patrīā, 'for the country'; prō cōnsule = prōcōnsul, 'a proconsul' (one acting for a consul); prō certō habēre, 'to regard as certain'; prō eō, quod, 'for the reason that,' 'because'; prō tuā prūdentiā, 'in accordance with your prudence'; prō imperiō, 'imperiously'; prō sē quisque, 'each according to his ability.'

435. The Accusative or Ablative is used with-

In, sub, subter, super:

In Asiam profügit, he fled into Asia. Cie. Hannibal in Îtalia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub monten, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter togam, under the toga. Liv. Subter testudine, under a tortoise or shed. Verg. Super Numidian, beyond Numidia. Sall. Hae super re scribam, I shall write on this subject. Cie.

Note 1.—In and snb take the Accusative after verbs implying motion, the Abiative after those implying rest; see examples.

Note 2.—Subter and super generally take the Accusative; but super, when it means concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples.

I. The following uses of in, sub, subter, and super deserve notice:

In, with the Accusative, into, to, toward, till. 1. Of Place; into, to, toward, against, in: ire in urbem, 'to go into the city'; in Persäs, 'into the country of the Persians'; in āram, 'to the altar'; ānum in locum convenīre, 'to meet in one place' (380, with note). 2. Of Time; into, to, for, till: in noctem, 'into the night'; in multan noctem, 'until late at night'; in diem, 'into the day,' also 'for the day'; in dies, 'from day to day,' 'daily'; invītāre in posterum diem, 'to invite for the following day.' 3. In other relations; into, against, toward, on, for, as, in: dīvīsa in partes trēs, 'divided into three parts'; in hostem, 'against the enemy'; in id certāmen, 'for this contest'; in memoriam patris, 'in memory of his father'; in spem pācis, 'in the hope of penee'; in rem esse, 'to be useful,' 'to be to the purpose.'

In. with the Ablative, in, on, at. 1. Of Place; in, at, within, among, epon: in urbe, 'in the city'; in Persis, 'among the Persians'; sapientissimus in septem, 'the wisest among or of the seven.' 2. Of Time; in, at, during, in the course of: in till tempore, 'at such a time'; in tempore, 'in time.' 3. In other relations; in, on, upon, in the case of: esse in armis, 'to be in arms'; in summô timôre, 'in the greatest fear'; in hôc homine, 'in the case of this man."

Sub, with the Accusative, under, beneath, toward, up to, about, direct-

¹ This causal meaning is developed from the local. The noun in the Ablative is thought of as an obstacle or hindrance; non prae lacrimos posse, 'not to be able before, in the presence of, because of such a hindrance as tears.'

LY AFTER: sub jugum mittere, 'to send under the yoke'; sub nostram aciem, 'toward our line'; sub astra, 'up to the stars'; sub vesperum, 'toward evening'; sub eās litterās, 'directly after that letter'; sub imperium redāctus, 'brought under one's sway.'

Sub, with the Ablative, UNDER, AT, AT THE FOOT OF, IN, ABOUT: sub terrā, 'under the earth'; sub pellibus, 'in tents'; 'sub brūmā, 'at the time of the winter solstice'; sub lūce, 'at dawn'; sub hōc verbō, 'under this word'; sub iūdice, 'in the hands of the judge' (i. e., not yet decided).

Note.—Subter, a strengthened form 2 of sub, meaning under, generally takes the Accusative, though it admits the Ablative in poetry: subter mare, 'under the sea'; subter togam, 'under the toga'; subter dēnsā testūdine, 'under a compact testudo.'

Super, with the Accusative, OVER, UPON, ABOVE: sedens super arma, 'sitting upon the arms'; super Numidiam, 'beyond Numidia'; super sexāgintā mīlia, 'upward of sixty thousand'; super nātūram, 'supernatural'; super omnia, 'above all.'

Super, with the Ablative, UPON, AT, DURING, CONCERNING, OF, ON: strātō super ostrō, 'upon purple couches' (lit., upon the spread purple); nocte super mediā, 'at midnight'; hāc super rē scrībere, 'to write upon this subject'; multa super Priamō rogitāns, 'asking many questions about Priam.'

Note.—The Ablative is rare with super, except when it means concerning, about, on (of the subject of discourse). It is then the regular construction.

436. Prepositions were originally adverbs (307, note 1), and many of the words generally classed as prepositions are often used as adverbs 3 in classical authors:

Ad mīlibus quattuor, about four thousand. Caes. Omnia contrā circāque, all things opposite and around. Liv. Prope ā Siciliā, not far from Sicily. Cic. Juxtā positus, placed near by. Nep. Suprā, infrā esse, to be above, below. Cic. Nec citrā nec ultrā, neither on this side nor on that side. Ov.

- **437.** Conversely, several words generally classed as adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. Such are—
- 1. With the Acousative, propius, proxime, vridie, postridie, usque, desuper:

Propius periculum, neurer to danger. Liv. Pridie Idus, the day before the Ides. Cic. Usque pedes, even to the feet. Curt.

2. With the Ablative, intus, palam, procul, simul (poetic):

Tall intus templo, within such a temple. Verg. Palam populo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procul castris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With the Accusative or Ablative, clam, insuper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knowledge. Plant. Clam vobis, without your knowledge. Caes.

¹ That is, in camp (lit., under skins),

² Formed from sub, like in-ter from in; see 433, I., inter, foot-note.

⁸ They are, in fact, sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions.

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XXXIV.-Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE:

Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic. Vērae amīcitiae, true friendships. Cic. Magister optimus, the best teacher. Cic. Quā in rē prīvātās injūriās ultus est, in which thing he avenged private wrongs. Caes. Sõl oriēns diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic.

- 1. Adjective Pronouns and Purticiple: are Adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as in quā in rē, sōl oriēns.
- 2. When an adjective unites with the verb (generally sum) to form the predicate, as in caeca est, 'is blind,' it is called a Predicate Adjective (360, note 1); but when it simply qualifies a noun, as in vērae amīcitiae, 'true friendships,' it is called an Attributive Adjective.
- 3. AGREEMENT WITH CLAUSE, ETC.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clărior, who is more illustrious? Cie. Certum est liberos amari, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 42, note.

Note.—An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek:

Ut Aenēās jactētur nota tibi, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you. Verg.

4. A NEUTER Adjective used as a *substantive* sometimes supplies the place of a Predicate Adjective: 1

Mors est extremum, death is the last thing. Cic. Triste lupus stabulis, a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks. Verg.

5. A NEUTER ADJECTIVE WITH A GENITIVE is often used instead of an adjective with its noun, especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Multum operae, much service.² Cic. Id temporis, that time.² Cic. Vana rērum, vain t'tings.² Hor. Opāca viārum, dark streets. Verg. Strāta viārum, paved streets. Verg. See also 397, 3, note 4.

6. Synesis. 3—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the *real* meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certare parati, a part (some), prepared to contend. Verg. Insperanti anobis, to us (me) not expecting it. Catul. Demosthenes cum ceteris erant expulsi, a Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

- 1 As in Greek: οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη, the rule of the many is not a good thing.
- ² Multum operae = multa opera or multam operam; id temporis = id tempus; vana rērum = rānae rēs or vānās rēs.
 - 3 A construction according to sense; see 636, IV., 4.
 - * Parātī is plural, to conform to the meaning of pars, 'part,' 'some,' plural in sense:

Note.—In the Ablative Absolute (431) absente and praesente occur in early Latin with a plural noun or pronoun: 1

Praesente ¹ ibus (els), ² in their presence (lit., they being present). Plaut. Praesente testibus, in the presence of witnesses. Plaut.

7. AGREEMENT WITH ONE NOUN FOR ANOTHER.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:

Majora (for mājorum) rērum initia, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus jūstī (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

NOTE 1.—In the passive forms of verbs the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 462.

Note 2.—An adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit se dextra (for dextram), she shows herself favorable. Verg.

439. An adjective or participle, belonging to Two or More Nouns, may agree with them all *conjointly*, or may agree with *one* and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollūx visī sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Dubitāre vīsus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt. Cic. Temeritās īgnōratiōque vitiōsa est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Attributive Adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun:

Agrī omnēs et maria, all lands and seas. Cie. Cūneta maria terracque, all seas and lands. Sall.

2. A plural adjective or participle, agreeing with two or more nouns or different genders, is generally masculine when the nouns denote persons or sentient beings, and in other cases generally neuter:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead. Ter. Honores, victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental things. Cic. Lapor voluptasque inter se sunt juncta, labor and pleasure are joined together. Liv.

Note.—When nonns denoting sentient beings are combined with those denoting things, the plural adjective or participle in agreement with them sometimes takes the gender of the former and sometimes of the latter, and sometimes is neuter irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Rëx rëgiaque clässis profecti sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out. Liv. Regem regnumque sua futura sclunt, they know that the king and the kingdom will be theirs. Liv. Inimica inter së sunt libera civitäs et rëx, a free state and a king are hostile to each other. Liv.

3. With nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is often neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Labor et dolor sunt finitima, labor and pain are kindred (things). Cic.

inspēranti is singular, because nōbis is here applied to one person, the speaker (446, note 2); expulsi is plural, because Dēmosthenēs cum cēterīs means Demosthenes and the others.

¹ In this construction absente and praesente appear to be treated as adverbs.

See p. 73, foot-note 2.

Perhaps best explained substantively-things hostile; see 438, 4.

Nox atque praeda hostis remorāta sunt, night and plunder detained the enemy-Sall.

4. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun: Prima et vicesima legiones, the first and the twentieth legions. Tac.

Note.—In the same way two or more praenomina in the singular may be combined with a family name in the piural:

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scipiones, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio. Clc. Pūblius et Servius Suilae, Publius and Servius Sul/a. Sail.

Use of Adjectives.

- 440. The adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the adjective in English.
- 1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and another adjective:

Duae potentissimae gentēs, two very powerful races. Liv. Māgnum aes alienum, a large debt. Cic. Nāvēs longās trigintā veterēs, thirty old vessels of war. Liv.²

Note.—In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined, as in duae potentissimae gentes, etc.; but if the first adjective is multi or $pl\bar{u}rimi$, the connective is usually inserted:

Multae et māgnae cogitātiones, many great thoughts. Cic. Multa et praeciāra facinora, many illustrious deeds. Sall.

2. Prolepsis or Anticipation.—An adjective is sometimes applied to a noun to denote the *result* of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersas 3 obrue puppes, overwhelm and sink the ships (lit., overwhelm the sunken ships). Verg. Seuta latentia 2 condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg.

NOTE 1.—Certain adjectives often designate a Particular Part of an object: prima nox. the first part of the night; mediā aestāte, in the middle of summer; summus mons, tin top (highest part) of the mountain.

NOTE 2.—The adjectives thus used are primus, medius, últimus, extrêmus, postrêmus, intimus, summus, infimus, imus, suprêmus, réliquus, citera, etc.

Note 3.—In the poets, in Livy, and in late prose writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a Genitive sometimes occurs:

Libyae extrēma, the frontiers of Libya. Verg. Ad ültimum inopiae (for ad ültimam inopiam), to extreme destitution. Liv,

Note 4.—Adjectives are often combined with REs: res adversue, adversity; res secundae, prosperity; res novae, revolution; res pública, republic.

¹ For Roman names, see 649.

² Here duae qualifies not simply gentis, but potentissimae gentis; māgnum qualifies aes atienum, 'debt' (lit., money belonging to another); reteris qualifies nāvēs longās, 'vessels of war' (lit., 'long vessels'), while trīgintā qualifies the still more complex expression, nāvēs longās veterēs.

³ Observe that submersion gives the result of the action denoted by obrue, and is not applicable to pupper until that action is performed; latentia likewise gives the result of condunt.

441. Adjectives and participles are often used Substantively:1

Boni, the good; mortālēs, mortals; doctī, the learned; sapientēs, the wise; multī, many persons; multa, many things; praefectus, a prefect; nātus, a son.

- 1. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles often designate persons, and neuter adjectives things: fortes, the brave; divites, the rich; pauperes, the poor; multi, many; pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; discentes, learners; spectantes, pattura, future events; itilia, useful things; mea, nostra, my things, our things; omnia, all things; haec, illa, these things, those things.
- 2. In the singular, adjectives and participles are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Genitive, or in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: docine, as learned man; adulėscėns, a young man; vērum. a true thing, the truth; falsum, a falsehood; nithil sincèri, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere; nithil humanî, nothing human; nithil rěliqui, nothing left; aliquid novī, something new; ā prīmō, from the beginning; ad extrēmum, to the end; ad summum, to the highest point; dē integrō, afresh; dē imprōvīsō, unexpectedly; ex aequō, in like manner; in praesentī, at present; in futūrum, for the future; prō certō, as certain.

Note 1 .- For the neuter participle with opus and ūsus, see 414, IV., note 3.

- Note 2.—For the use of adjectives instead of nouns in the Genitive, see 395, note 2.

 3. A few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in
- tor and trīx: 5 victor exercitus, a victorious army; homŏ gladiātor, a gladiator, a gladiator, a gladiatorial man; vīctrīcēs Athēnae, victorious (conquering) Athens; populus lātē rēx, a people of extensive sway. 5
- 442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nemo saltat sobrius, no one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vivum amavi, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. Homè nunquam sobrius, a man who is never sober. Cic.

Note.—Prior, primus, ültimus, postrėmus, are often best rendered by a relative clause: Primus mörem solvit, he was the first who broke the custom.⁷ Liv.

443. Adjectives and Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrates venenum laetus hausit, Socrates oheerfully drank the poison. Sen. Senatus frequens convenit, the senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roscius erat Romae frequens, Roscius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

¹ That is, words which were originally adjectives or participles sometimes become substantives; indeed, many substantives were originally adjectives; see 323, foot-note; 324, foot-note.

² Praefectus, from praeficiö (lit., one appointed over); nâtus, from născor (lit., one born).

⁸ See 397, 1. For nihil reliqui facere, see 401, note 4.

⁴ Numerous adverbial expressions are thus formed by combining the neuter of adjectives with prepositions.

⁵ That is, these words are generally substantives, but sometimes adjectives.

⁶ See Verg., Aen., I., 21,

With the adverb primum the thought would be, he first broke the custom (i. e., before doing anything else). Compare the corresponding distinction between the Greek adjective πρώτος and the adverb πρώτου.

Note 1.—The adjectives chiefly thus used are—(1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: lactus, libens, invitus, trīstis, sciens, insciens, prūdens, imprūdens, etc. (2) Nūllus, solus, totus, ūnus; prior, prīmus, propior, prōcimus, etc.

Note 2.—In the poets a few adjectives of time and place are used in the same manner: Domesticus ôtior, I idle about home. Hor. Vespertinus pete tectum, at evening seek your abode. Hor.

Note 3.-In rare instances adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Omnia rêctê sunt, all things are Right. Cic. Non îgnărî sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg. Nunc hominum mores, the character of men of the present day. Plant.

Note 4.-Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office: 2

Flaminius, consui iterum, Flaminius, when consul for the second time. Cic.

444. A COMPARISON between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior horum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. The comparative sometimes has the force of too, UNUSUALLY, SOME-WHAT, and the superlative, the force of very: doction, too learned, or somewhat learned; doctissimus, very learned.

Note.—Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clarissimus, nõbilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illustrissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order.

2. Comparative after Quam.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used either may be connected by magis quam 2 or may both be put in the comparative:

Disertus magis quam sapiens, more fluent than wise. Cic. Praeclarum magis quam difficile, more noble than difficult, or noble rather than difficult. Cic. Dittores quam fortiores, more wealthy than brave. Liv. Clarior quam gratior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv.

Nors 1.—In a similar manner two adverbs may be connected by magts quam, or may both be put in the comparative:

Magis audieter quam parate, with more audacity than preparation. Clc. Bellum fortius quam felicius gerere, to wage war with more valor than success. Liv.

NOTE 2.—The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered rather than;

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult. Oc. See also the second example under 2, above.

NOTE 3.—In the later Latin the positive sometimes follows quam, even when the regular comparative precedes, and sometimes two positives are used:

Vehementius quam cauté appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously. Tac. Claris quam vetustis, illustrious rather than ancient. Tac.

Note 4 - For the use of comparatives before quam pro, see 417, 1, note 5.

- 1 Like the Greek των πρίν κακών and των νθν ανθρώπων.
- ² The want of a present participle in the verb sum brings these adverbs into close connection with nouns.
 - 3 As in English, more fluent than wise. This is the usual method in Cicero.
- As in Greek, πλείονες η βελτίονες, more numerous than good. This method, common in Livy, is rare in the earlier writers.

3. STRENGTHENING WORDS.—Comparatives and superlatives are often strengthened by a preposition with its case, as by ante, prae, praeter, suprā (417, 1, note 3). Comparatives are also often strengthened by etiam, even, still; multō, much; and superlatives by longē, multō, by far, much; vel, even; unus, unus omnium, alone, alone of all, without exception, far, by far; quam, quam or quantus with the verb possum, as possible; tam quam qui, ut qui, as possible (lit., as he who):

Mājorēs etiam varietātēs, even greater varieties. Cic. Multo etiam gravius queri tur, he complains even much more bitterly. Caes. Multo māxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Quam saepissimē, as often as possible. Cic. Ūnus omnium doctissimus, without exception the most tearned of men. Cic. Rēs ūna omnium difficillima, a thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam māximae cōpiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quantam māximam potest vastitātem ostendit, he exhibite the greatest possible desolation (lit., as great as the greatest he can). Liv.

CHAPTER IV.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE XXXV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON.

Animal quos sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego, qui 16 confirmo, I who encourage you. Cic. Vis est in virtuibus, cas excita, there is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

Note.—The antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod; ego, of qui; and virtūtibus. of c.7s

- 1. This rule applies to all pronounce when used as novns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives; see 438.
- 2. When the antecedent is a demonstrative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tũ es is qui mē ōrnāstī, you are the one wno commendea me. Cie.

3. When a relative, or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with their conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest or the most important:

Pietas, virtus, fides, quarum 1 Romae templa sunt, piety, virtue, and faith, whose temples are at Rome. Cic. Peccatum ac culpa, quae, 1 error and fault, which. Cic.

¹ Quārum agrees with pietūs, virtūs, and fidēs conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural; but guae agrees simply with culpa.

NOTE 1.—With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3):

Pueri mulieresque qui, loops and women who. Caes. Inconstantia et temeritäe quae l digna non sunt deo, inconstancy and rashness which are not worthy of a god. Cic.

Not: 2.—With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs (463, 1):

Ego ac tù inter $n\delta s^2$ loquimur, you and I converse together. Tac. Et tù et collègae un, qul^2 spërastis, both you and your colleagues, who hoped. Cic.

4. By Attraction, a pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predioate Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quem (for quod) vocamus hominem, the animal which we call man.³ Cic. Thebae, quod (quae) caput est, Thebes, which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) erat confessio, that (i. e., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flumen Rhēnus, qui, the river Rhine, which. Caes.

5. By SYNESIS, the pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Quia tessum militem habébat, his quiêtem dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them (these) a rest. Liv. Equitatus, qui viderunt, the cavalry who saw. Caes. De alia re, quod ad me attinet, in regard to another thing which pertains to me. Plaut. Earum rerum utrumque, each of these things. Cic. Democritum omittamus; apud istos; let us omit Democritus; with suon (i. e., as he). Cic.

6. Antecedent Omitted.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is a demonstrative pronoun, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui conseant, there are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accepit, the earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestra, qui cum integritate vixistis, hoc interest, this interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic-Servilis tumultus quos, the rerolt of the slaves whom. Caes.

7. CLAUSE AS ANTECEDENT.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445, 4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds *id* as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought (lit., that which it owes). Cie. Regem, quod nunquam autea accident, necessity, they put their king to death, which had never before happened. Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Judice quo (for quem) nosti, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dies Instat,

¹ Qut agrees with pueri and mulieres conjointly, and is in the musculine, according to 439, 2; but quae is in the neuter, according to 439, 3.

Nos, referring to eyo do tā, is in the first person; while qut, referring to tā et collegat, is in the second person, as is shown by the verb spērdstis.

In these examples, the pronouns quem, quod, and ea are attracted, to agree with their predicate nouns, hominem, caput, and confessió; but qui agrees with the appeal tive. Rhénus

quo die, the day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Camae, quam urbem tene bant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. ANTECEDENT ATTRACTED.—In poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause with the relative in agreement with it:

Urbem, quam statuo, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours. Verg. Malarum, quas amor curas habet, oblivisei (for malarum curarum quas), to forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor. Quos vos implorare debetis, ut, quam urbem pulcherrimam esse voluerunt, hanc 2 defendant, these (lit., whom) you ought to implore to defend this city, which they wished to be most beautiful. Cic.

Use of Pronouns.

446. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast: 3

Significāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēci, võs tyrannös introducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

Note 1.-With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:

Facia amice tu quidem, you act indeed in a friendly manner. Cic. Non dubitulam equidem, I did not doubt indeed. Cic.

Note 2.—A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nos for eyo, noscor for meus, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vides nos (for mē) multa conārī, you see that wr (for 1) are attempting many things. Cic. Sermō explicābit nostram (for meam) sententiam, the conversation will unjold our (my) opinion. Cic. Diximus (for dīx1) multa, I have said many things. Cic. 4

NOTE 3.—Nostri and restri are generally used in an objective sense; nostrum and restrum in a partitive sense:

llabétis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of your interests (of 100). Cic. Minus habed vīrium quam vestrūm utervis, I have less strength than either of you. Cic. Quis nostrūm, who of us? Cic.

Note 4.—With ab, ad, or apud, a personal pronoun may designate the residence or abode of a person:

 \bar{A} nodis egreditur, he is coming from our house. Ter. Vēnī ad mē, I came to my house. Cic. Eāmus ad mē, let us go to my house. Ter. Apud tē est, he is at your house. Cic. Rūrī apud sē est, he is at his residence in the country. Cic. See also 433, I., ad, apud, etc.

447. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Manus lavă, wash your hands. Cic. Mihi mea vita căra est, my life is deur to me. Plaut.

¹ For other examples, see Verg., Aen., V., 28-30; Hor., Sat., I., 10, 16.

² Quam urbem, hanc = hanc urbem, quam.

³ The learner will remember that a pronominal subject is actually contained in the ending of the verb; see 368, 2, foot-note.

⁴ For other examples, see Hor., Sat., I., 9, 7, and Car., I., 82.

In this example mea is expressed for emphasis.

Note 1.—Possessive Prouous sometimes mean favorable, propitious, as alienus often means unfavorable:

Tempore tuổ pugnāstī, you fought at a favorable time. Liv. Ferunt sua flāmina clāssem, favorable winds bear the fleet. Verg. Alieno loco proelium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable place. Caes.

NOTE 2.—For the Possessive Pronoun in combination with a Genitive, see 398, 3. For certain other uses of Possessives, see 396, II., N.; III., N. 2.

448. REFLEXIVE USE OF PRONOUNS.—Suī and suus have a reflexive sense; sometimes also the other personal and possessive pronouns:

Miles se ipsum interfecit, the soldier killed himself. Tac. Telo se defendit, he defends himself with a weapon. Cic. Sua vi movetur, he is moved by his own power. Cic. Me consolor, I console myself. Cic. Vos vestra tecta defendite, defend your houses. Cic.

Note.—Inter $n\bar{n}s$, inter $v\bar{o}s$, inter $s\bar{e}$, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter $s\bar{e}$, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Colloquimur inter nos, we converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, they love one exother. Cic. Homines hominibus ûtiles sunt, men are useful to men (i. e., to each other). Cic.

449. Suī and suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Se diligit, he loves himself. Cic. Justitia propter sese colenda est, justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, he gave his sing. Nep. Per se sibl quisque carus est, every one is in his very nature through or in himself) dear to himself. Cic.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, sui and suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit animus se vI sua moverI, the mind perceives that it is moved by its own power. Clc. A ma petivit ut seem essem he asked (from) me to be with him (that I would be). Clc. Pervestigat quid sul cives cogitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Clc.

As sul and suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, is, ille, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects which do not admit sul and suus:

Deum āgnöscis ex ējus operībus, you recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic, Obligat cīvitātem nihli eōs mūtātūrōs, he binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.

.2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the reflexive or the demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own;

Persuadent Tulingis utl cum lis 2 proficiscantur, they persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

8) Sometimes reflexives and demonstratives are used without any apparent distinction:

¹ Suž, of himself; sibž, for himself; sē, himself.

² Here cum its is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; secum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.

Caesar Fablum cum legione suā ¹ remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius and (with his legion. Caes. Omitto Isocratem discipulosque ējus, ¹ Iomét Isocrates and his disciples. Clc.

2. Suus, in the sense of His own, Fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Jūstitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

3. SYNESIS.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suī and suus refer to the agent:

Ă Caesare invîtor sibi ut sim lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.

4. THE PLURAL OF SUUS, meaning HIS FRIENDS, THEIR FRIENDS, THEIR POSSESSIONS, etc., is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoc luctuosum suis, this was afflicting to his friends.2 Cic.

5. Sui and Suus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Déforme est de se praedicare, to boast of one's self is disgusting. Cic.

6. Two Reflexives.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit nëminem sëcum sine suä pernicië contendisse, he replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruction. 3 Caes.

450. Demonstrative Pronouns.—Hic, iste, ille, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as hie designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed; and ille, that which is remote from both:

Cūstos hūjus urbis, the guardian of this city (i. e., of our city). Cic. Mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Cic. Ista quae sunt ā tē dicta, those things which were spoken by you. Cic. Sī illos, quos vidēre non possumus, neglegis, if you disregard those (far away, yonder) whom we can not see. Cic.

1. Hic designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro fuit éruditus, he was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Clc. Hoc illud fuit, was it (that) this? Very.

Note.—The idea of contempt often implied in clauses with iste is not strictly contained in the pronoun itself, but derived from the context:

Animi est ista mollities, non virtus, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor. Caes.

- ¹ Observe that the reflexire is used in the first example, and the demonstrative in the second, though the cases are entirely alike.
 - 2 Here suis refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.
- ³ Here se refers to the subject of respondit, and suu to neminem, the subject of the subordinate clause.
- 4 The idea of contempt is readily explained by the fact that iste is often applied to the views of an opponent, to a defendant before a court of justice, and the like.

2. FORMER AND LATTER.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) hic generally follows ille and refers to the latter object, while ille refers to the former; but (2) hic may precede and may refer to the former, and ille refer to the latter:

inimici, amici; iiii, hi, enemies, friends; the former, the latter. Cic. Certa pāx spērāta vīctōria; haec ($p\bar{a}x$) in tuā, iila in deōrum potestāte est, sure peace, hoped-for victory; the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

Note.—His refers to the *former* object, when that object is conceived of as nearer in thought, either because of its importance, or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion.¹

3. Hic and ille are often used of what immediately follows in discourse:

His verbis epistniam misit, he sent a tetter in these words (i. e., in the following words). Nep. Iilud intellegő, omnium öra in mě conversa esse, the I understand, that the eves of all are turned upon me. Sail.

4. Ille is often used of what is WELL KNOWN, FAMOUS:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic. Ego, ille ferox, tacul, I, that haughty one, was silent. Ovid.

Note 1.—Hīc is sometimes equivalent to meus or noster, rarely to ego, and hīc homō to ego:

Suprā hanc memoriam, before our time (lit., before this memory). Cic. His meis litteris, with this letter of mine (from me). Cic. Hic homost omnium hominum, etc., of all men I am, etc. (lit., this man is). Plaut.

Note 2.—Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem:

Sciplò non multum ille dicebat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. Graeci voiant Illi quidem, the Greeks indeed desire it. Cic. Ista tranquillitàs ea ipsa est beata vita, that tranquillity is itself a happy life. Cic.

Note 3.—A demonstrative or relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive, or to a preposition with its case: hic amor = amor hūjus rēī, 'the love of this'; haee cūra = cūra dē hōc, 'care concerning this.'

Note 4.—Adverbs derived from demonstrative pronouns share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hic plus mali est, quam illic boni, there is more of evil here, than of good there. Ter. See also 304; 305.

451. Is and iden refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufügit, is est in provincia, Dionysius has fled, he is in the province. Cic. Is qui satis habet, he who has enough. Cic. Eadem audire malunt, they prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. The pronoun is, the weakest of the demonstratives, is often understood, especially before a relative or a Genitive:

Fiebat pater de filii morte, de patris filius, the father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Clc. See also 445, 6.

¹ Thus, in the last example, have refers to certa pax as the more prominent object in the mind of the speaker, as he is setting forth the advantages of a sure peace over a hoped-for victory.

² For other examples, see Verg., Aen., I., 3; III., 490; and XI., 809. For the use of personal pronounce with quidem, sec 446, note 1.

1. Is, with a conjunction, is often used for emphasis, like the English, and that too and that indeed:

Unam rem explicabo, eamque māximam, one thing I will explain, and that too a most important one. Cic. Audire Cratippum, idque Athēnis, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. 1 Cic.

8. Idem is sometimes best rendered also, at the same time, at once, both, yet:

Nihil utile, quod non idem honestum, nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Cum dieat, negat idem, though he asserts, he yet denies (the same denies). Cic. Rex Anius, rex idem hominum Phoebique sacerdos, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo. Verg.

4. Is-qui means he-who, such-as, such-that:

Ii sumus, qui esse débémus, we are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ea est gêns quae nesciat, the race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. Idem—qui means the same—who, the same—as; idem—āc (atque, et, que), idem—ut, idem—cum with the Ablative, the same—as:

Eidem möres, qui, the same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem ac fuit, he is the same as he was. Ter. Eödem meeum patre genitus, the son of the same father as I (with me). Tac.

6. For the distinction between is and sul in subordinate clauses, see 449, 1, 2).

452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Pater fulmina molītur, the Father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts. Verg. Ipse ² dīxit, he himself said it. Cic. Ipse Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut tē ipsum cūstōdiās, see that you guard yourself. Cic.

1. Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:

Më ipse consolor, I myself (not another) console myself. Cic. Ipse së quisque diligit, every one (himself) loves himself. Cic. Së ipsum interfecit, he killed himself. Tac.

Note.—Ipse is sometimes accompanied by sēcum, 'with himself,' 'alone,' or by per sē, 'by himself,' 'unaided,' 'in and of himself,' etc.:

Allud genitor secum ipse volutat, the father (Jupiter) himself alone ponders another plan. Verg. Quod est rectum ipsumque per se laudabile, which is right, and in and of itself praiseworthy. Cic.

2. Ipse is often best rendered by very:

Ipse ille Gorgias, that very Gorgias. Cic.

3. With numerals, ipse means just so many, just; so also in nunc ipsum, 'just at this time'; tum ipsum, 'just at that time':

Trīgintā dies ipsī, just thirty days. Cic. Nunc ipsum sine tē esse non possum, just at this time I cannot be without you. Cic.

4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of own, one's own:

Nostra ipsorum amīcitia, our own friendship. Cic. See 398, 3.

Ipse in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the principal subject, like an emphatic sui or suus;

Lēgātōs mīsit qui ipsī vītam peterent, he sent messengers to ask life for himself. Sall.

6. Et ipse and ipse quoque may often be rendered also, likewise, even he:3

Alius Achilles natus et ipse dea, another Achilles likewise (lit., himself also) born of a goddess. Verg.

¹ Id, thus used, after refers to a clause, or to the general thought, as in this example.

² Applied to P7thagoras by his disciples. Ipse is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

³ Compare the Greek rai autos.

- 7. For the use of the Nominative *ipse* in connection with the Abiative Absolute, see 431, note 3.
- 453. Relative Pronouns.—The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Rès loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet, the fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proclium committunt, they engage in battle. Caes. Quae cum its sint, since these things are so. Cic.

1. Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other. $h\bar{t}c-qu\bar{t}$, $iste-qu\bar{t}$, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see $is-qu\bar{t}$, $idem-qu\bar{t}$, 451, 4 and 5.

Note.—The neuter quidquid, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mâtres et quidquid técum invalidum est délige, select the mothers and whaterer freble persons there are with you (lit, whatever there is with you feeble). Verg. Quidquid erat patrum, whatever fathers there were. Liv. See also 397, 8, note 5.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the *relative* may be—(1) expressed in both, (2) expressed in the first and omitted in the second, (3) expressed in the first and followed by a demonstrative in the second.

Nos qui sermoni non interfuissemus et quibus Cotta sententias tràdidisset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions. Cic. Dumnorix qui principatum obtinedat ae plèdi acceptus erat, Dumnorix, who held the chief authority, and who was acceptable to the common people. Caes. Quae aec babérèmus nec his üteremur, which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

Note I .- Several relatives may appear in successive clauses:

Omnes qui vestitum, qui tecta, qui cuitum vitae, qui pracsidia contra feras invenerunt, all who introduced (invented) clothing, houses, the refinements of life, protection against wild peasts. Cic.

Note 2.—A relative clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive: it qui audiunt = auditores, 'hearers.'

3. Two Relatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artês quâs qui tenent, arts, whose possessors (which who possess). Cic.

4. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with pro:

Spērō, quae tua prūdentia est, tē vaiēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.). Clc.

Note.—Quae tua prūdentia est = quā es prūdentiā = prō tuā prūdentiā, means such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, etc.

5. Relative with Adjective.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Vüsa, quae pulcherrina viderat, the most beautiful ressels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cic. De servis suis, quem habuit fidelissimum, misit, he sent the most faithful of the slaves that he had. Nep.

6. The neuter, quod, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning

¹ Of the general or indefinite relative quisquis.

of a sentence or clause, especially before \$\varepsilon\$, \$n\varepsilon\$, \$n\varepsilon\$, and sometimes before \$quia\$, \$quoniam\$, \$utinam\$, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by \$now\$, in fact, but, and:

Quod sī ceciderint, but if they should fall. Cic. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, now if I had learned this sooner. Ter.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vocatur, or the corresponding active, quem dicunt, quem vocant are often used in the sense of so-called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra quae dicitur vita, mors est, your so-called life (lit., your, which is called life) is death. Clc. Lex ista quam vocas non est lex, that law, us you call it, is not a law. Clc.

454. Interrogative Pronouns.—The Interrogative quis is used substantively; qui, adjectively:

Quis ego sum, who am I? Cic. Quid faciet, what will he do? Cic Qui vir fuit, what kind of a man was he? Cic.

1. Occasionally quis is used adjectively and $qu\bar{i}$ substantively:

Quis rex unquam fuit, what king was there ever? Cic. Qui sis, considera, consider who you are. Cic.

Note.—The neuter, quid, is sometimes used of persons; see 397, 3, note 5.

2. Quip, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (378, 2), or stands apparently unconnected: 2 quid, 'why?' 'what?' quid enim, 'why then?' 'what then?' 'what indeed?' quid ita, 'why so?' quid quod, 'what of the fact that?' quid sī, 'what if?':

Quid venisti, why have you come? Plant. Quid enim? metusne conturbet, what then? would fear disturb us? Cic. Quid quod delectantur, what of the fact that they are delighted? Cic.

8. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudavit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit., who defrauded whom)? Cie.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the interrogative pronoun:

Quae fuit unquam in ūilō homine tanta cōnstantia, was there ever so great constancy in any man? Cic.

455. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. 3—Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite—some one, any one:

Est aliquis, there is some one. Liv. Sensus aliquis esse potest, there may be some sensation. Cic. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Si quis rex, if any king. Cic. Alia res quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

1. Quis and qui are used chiefly after $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, $n\bar{e}$, and num. Aliquis and quis are generally used substantively, aliqui and qui adjectively. Aliquis and aliqui after $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, etc., are emphatic:

Si est aliqui sensus in morte, if there is any sensation whatever in death. Cic.

Nesció quis and nesció qui often supply the place of indefinite pronouns:

- ¹ Here quod refers to something that precedes, and means in reference to which, in reference to this, in this connection, etc. For other examples, see Caesar, B. G., i., 14, and VII., 88.
- ² In some instances quid is readily explained by the ellipsis of some form of $die\tilde{d}$ or of sum.
 - 3 For a full illustration of the use of indefinite pronouns, see Draeger, I., pp. 87-108.

Nesciò quis loquitur, some one speaks (lit., I know not who speaks, or one speaks, I know not who). Plaut. Nesciò quid mihi animus praesagit mall, my mind forebodes some evit (191, note). Ter.

456. Quidam, 'a certain one,' is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quidam rhêtor antiquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, a certain one runs up. Hor.

1. Quidam with an adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement: Jüstitia mīrifica quaedam vidētur, justice seems somewhat wonderful. Cic.

2. Quidam with quasi, and sometimes without lt, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:

Quasi alumna quaedam, a certain foster-child, as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ūllus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam agnovit, nor did any one recognize me. Cic. SI quisquam, if any one. Cic. Num censes allum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cic.

1. $Nem\delta$ is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:

Něminem laesit, he harmed no one. Cic. Němô počta, no poet. Cic.

2. Nallus is the negative of allus, and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Genitive and Ablative of $nem\tilde{o}$, which generally wants those cases:

Nullum animal, no animal. Cic. Nullius aures. the ears of no one. Cic.

8. Nullus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:

Nüllus vēnit, he did not come. Cic. Mortuī nülli sunt, the dead are not. Cic.

458. Quivis, quilibet, 'any one whatever,' and quisque, 'every one,' 'each one,' are general indefinites (190):

Quaelibet res, anything. Cic. Tuorum quisque necessariorum, each one of your friends. Cic.

1. Quisque with superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by all, or by ever, always; with primus by very, possible:

Epicurcos doctissimus quisque contemnit, all the most learned despise the Epicureans, or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Primo quoque dic, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.

Ut quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the
more—the more;

Ut quisque sibi plurimum confidit, its maximé excellit, the more one confides in one's self, the more one excels. Cic.

459. Alius means 'another, other'; alter, 'the one,' 'the other' (of two), 'the second,' 'a second.' They are often repeated: alius—alius, one—another; ali—alii, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alteri—alteri, the one party—the other:

Legatos alium ab alio aggreditur, he tumpers with the ambassadors one after another. Sall. Alii gloriae serviunt, alii pecuniac, some are slares to glory, others to money. Cic. Quidquid negat alter, et alter, whaterer one denies, the other denies. Hor. Alter erit TIphys, there will be a second Tiphys. Verg Tū nunc eris alter ab illō, you will now be next after him. Verg. Alteri dimicant, alteri timent, one party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alius or alter repeated in different cases, or combined with alias or aliter, often involves an ellipsis:

Allus alla via civitatem auxèrunt, they advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. Aliter alli vivunt, some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After alius, aliter, and the like, atque, ac, and et often mean than:

Non alius essem atque sum, I would not be other than I am. Cic.

: 3. When alter-atter refer to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimicus, competitor, cum altero-cum altero, an enemy, a rival, with the latterwith the former. Cic.

4. Uterque means both, each of two. In the plurai it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Utrique victoriam crüdelitcr exercebant, both parties made a cruel use of victory Sall. Palmäs uträsque tetendit, he extended both his hands. Verg.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS .- USE OF VOICES.

RULE XXXVI.-Agreement of Verb with Subject.

460. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, võs tyrannõs introducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301. 1 and 2:

Thěbání accūsátí sunt, the Thebans were accused. Cic.

Note 1.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, the participle in um sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentia futurum quae imperavisset, from doubt that those things which he had sommanded would take place. Sall.

Note 2.-A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted-

1) By the First or Third Person Plural, and in the Subjunctive by the Second Person

Singular: dicimus, 'we (people) say'; dicunt, 'they say'; dicās, 'you (any one) may say':

Si beāti esse volumus, if we wish to be happy. Cic. Agere quod sgās considerātē decet, you (one) should do considerately whatever you do (one does). Cic.

2) By an Impersonal Passive:

Ad fanum concurritur, they rush to the temple. Cic. Nisi cum virtute vivatur, unless they live (unless one lives) virtuously. Cic.

Note 3.—For the Pronominal Subject contained in the verb, see 368, 2.

NOTE 4 .- For the OMISSION OF THE VERB, see 368, 3.

- 461. Synesis.—Sometimes the predicate is construed according to the *real meaning* of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus—
 - 1. With collective nouns, pars, multitūdo, and the like:

Multitudo abeunt, the multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dilapsi, a part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

Note 1.—Here multitudő and purs, though singular and feminine in form, are plural and masculine in sense; see also 438, 6. Conversely, the Imperative singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually:

Adde defectioners Siciliae, add (to this, soldiers) the revolt of Sicily. Liv.

NOTE 2.—Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often singular and the latter plural:

Juventus ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend. Verg.

2. With mīlia, often masculine in sense:

Caesī sunt tria mīlia, three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With quisque, uterque, alius-alium, alter-alterum, and the like:

Uterque ēdūcunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum vidēmus, we see each other. Cic.

4. With singular subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum prīncipibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv. Quid hūc tantum hominum (= tot homines) incedunt, why are so many men coming hither? Plaut. See also 438, 6.

5. With partim-partim in the sense of pars-pars:

Bonorum partim necessaria, partim non necessaria sunt, of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or with a Predicate Noun:

Volsinii, oppidum Tuscōrum, concremătum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error should be called folly. Cic. Pueri Trōjānum dīcitur āgmen, the boys are called the Trojan band. Verg.

Note 1.—The verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum, or $e\bar{r}rit\bar{a}s$, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.

NOTE 2.—The verb agrees with the predicate noun when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.

NOTE 3.—The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after quan, nisi, etc.:

Nihil aliud nisi pax quaesīta est, nothing but peace was sought. Cic.

- 463. With two or more subjects the verb agrees—
- I. With one subject, and is understood with the others:

Aut mores spectari aut fortuna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural number:

Lentulus, Scīpiŏ perierunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Cicerŏ valēmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Tū et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

- 1. With subjects differing in person, the verb takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; see examples.
 - 2. For Participles in Compound Tenses, see 439.
- 3. Two Subjects as a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senatus populusque intellegit, the senate and people (i. e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessitasque postulat, time and necessity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. WITH AUT OR NEC.—When the subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or sen, differ in person, the verb is usually in the plural; but when they are of the same person, the verb usually agrees with the nearest subject:

Haec neque ego neque tu fecimus, neither you nor I have done these things. Ter. Aut Brutus aut Cassius judicavit, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic.

- 464. Voices.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But—
- I. That which in the active construction would be the *object* must be the *subject* in the passive; and—
- II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the Ablative with a or ab for persons, and in the Ablative alone for things (415, I.; 420):

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things. Ā Deō omnia constituta sunt, all things were ordained by God. Cic. Deī providentia mundum administrat, the providence of God rules the world. Deī providentia mundus administratur, the world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

465. The Passive Voice, like the Greek Middle, is sometimes equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun:

Lavantur in fluminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes.

¹ Most Passive forms once had both a Middle and a Passive meaning, as in Greek; but in Latin the Middle or Reflexive meaning has nearly disappeared, though retained to a certain extent in special verbs

Non hic victoria vertitur, not upon this point (here) does victory turn (turn itself). Verg.

 Intransitive Verbs (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad praetōrium, they run to the praetorium (it is run to). Cic. Mihī cum iīs vīvendum est, I must live with them. Cic.

NOTE.—Verbs which are usually intransitive are occasionally used transitively, especially in poetry:

Ego cur invideor, why am I envied? Hor.

2. Deponent Verbs, though passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

Illud mirabar, I admired that. Cic. Ab urbe proficisci, to set out from the city. Caes.

NOTE 1.—Originally many deponent verbs seem to have had the force of the Greek Middle volce: glörtor, 'I boast myself,' 'I boast'; vescor, 'I feed myself.'

NOTE 2.—SEMI-DEPONENTS have some of the active forms and some of the passive, without change of meaning; see 268, 3.

SECTION II.

THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. PRESENT INDICATIVE.

466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicero valèmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hoc tè rogo, I ask you for this. Cic.

Note.—The Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes an intended of future action; that of the Passive, a present necessity or duty:

Bellum scripturus sum, I intend to write the history of the war. Sall. Legendus est hic orator, this orator ought to be read. Cic.

467. Hence the Present Tense is used-

I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.

II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as general truths and customs:

Nihil est amábilius virtûte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortes fortûna adjuvat, fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

¹ Scripturus sum may be variously rendered, I intend to write, um about to write, am to write, am destined to write, etc.; legendus est means he ought to be read, do serves to be read, must be read, etc.

Jugurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounded the oity with a rampart. Sall.

 The HISTORICAL PRESENT is used much more freely in Latin than in English. It is therefore generally best rendered by a past tense.

2. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.:

Jamdiū īgnoro quid agās, I have not known for a long time what you have been doing. Cic.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates discussing. Cic.

4. With dum, 'while,' the Present is generally used, whether the action is present, past, or future:

Dum ea parant, Saguntum oppūgnābātur, while they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv. Dum haec geruntur, Cae aarī nūntiātum est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar. Caes.

Note.—But with dum, meaning as long as, the Present can be used only of present time.

5. The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prendimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? Verg. SI vincimus, omnia tuta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

6. The Present is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Verg. Quid mē terrēs why do you try to terrify me? Verg.

II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Ståbant nöbilissimi juvenes, there stood (were standing) most noble youths. Liv. Collès oppidum eingebant, hills encompassed the town. Caes. Mötürus exercitum erat, he was intending to move his army. Liv.

Note.—For the Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see $511,\,2$

469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially-

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:

Ante oppidum plānities patēbat, before the town extended a plain. Caes. Fulgentes gladios vidēbant, they saw (were seeing) the gleaming swords. Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered was wont, etc.:

¹ Here the time denoted by parant is present relatively to $app\bar{u}gn\bar{u}b\bar{u}tur$, and therefore really past.

Pausanias epuläbatur more Persarum, Pausanias was wont to banquet in the Persan style. Nep.

1. The imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:1

Sedabant tumultus, they attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

 The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.: 1

Domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had already for many wars had his residence at Rome. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect where the English requires the Present: 2

Păstum animantibus nătura eum qui cuique aptus erat, comparăvit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each. Cic.

Note 1 .- For the Imperfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

NOTE 2 .- For the Descriptive Imperfect in NARRATION, see 471, 6.

Note 3.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scribam ad tē, I shall write to you. Cic. Nunquam aberrābimus, we shall never go astray. Cic.

1. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Curabis et scribes, you will take care and write. Cic.

2. Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future tense, though sometimes put in the Present in English:

Nătūram si sequemur, nunquam aberrabimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Cic.

IV. PERFECT INDICATIVE.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.

II. As the HISTORICAL PERFECT OF PERFECT INDEFINITE, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

¹ Observe that the poculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth or the scene is viewed not from the present but from the past.

Miltiades est accusatus, Miltiades was accused. Nop. Quid facturi furstis, what did you intend to do, or what would you have done? Cic.

NOTE.—For the Perfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see 476. i.

- 1. The Perfect is sometimes used-
- 1) Instead of the Present to denote the suddenness of the action:

Terra tremit, mortalia corda stravit pavor, the earth trembles, fear over-whelms (has overwhelmed) the hearts of mortals. Verg.

2) To contrast the past with the present, implying that what was true then is not true now:

Habuit, non habet, he had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium was. Verg.

2. The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brutum non minus amo, paene dixi, quam te, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I love you. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297):

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers 1 the past. Cic. Cum ad villam vēnī, hoo me delectat, when I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic.

4. Conjunctions meaning as soon as 2 are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Postquam cecidit Ilium, after (as soon as) Ilium fell, or had fallen. Verg. His ubi natum prosequitur dictis, when he had addressed his son with these words. Verg. Posteaquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

5. In Subordinate Clauses after cum (quum), si, etc., the Perfect is sometimes used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

Cum ad villam vēnī, hỗc mẽ dělectat, whenever 1 come (have come) to a villa, this delights me. Cic.

Note.—In such cases the principal clause generally retains the Present, as in the example just given, but in postry and in late prose it sometimes admits the Perfect;

Tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulci, he wins (has won) favor who combines (has combined) the useful with the agreeable. Hor.

6. In Asimated Narrative, the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, veste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur more Persārum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, feasted in the Persian style.

Literally, has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act, the English the result.

² As postquam, ubi, ubi primum, ut, ut primum, simul atque (ac), etc.

³ Historical present; lit., when he attends.

⁴ And so was then a man of consular rank.

⁵ This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek

Nep. Se in oppida receperant murisque se tenebant, they betook themselves into their towns and kept themselves within their walls. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Compound Tenses in the Passive often denote the result of the action. Thus, doctus est may mean either he has been instructed, or he is a learned man (lit., an instructed man):

Fuit doctus ex disciplină Stoicorum, he was instructed in (lit., out of) the learning of the Stoics. Cic. Navis parata fuit, the vessel was ready (lit., was prepared). Liv.

NOTE 2. - For the Perfect in LETTERS, see 472, 1.

NOTE 3.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of DUTY, PROPRIETY, NECESSITY. .tc., see 476, 4.

V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some past time:

Pyrrhī temporibus jam Apollo versūs facere desierat, in the times of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceased to make verses.¹ Cic. Cōpiās quās pro castrīs collocaverat, redūxit, he led back the forces which he had stationed before the comp. Caes. Cum esset Dēmosthenēs, multī oratorēs clārī fuērumt et anteā fuerant, when Demosthenes lived there were many illustrious orators, and there had been before. Cic.

1. In Letters, the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past:²

Nihil habēbam quod scriberem; ad tuās omnēs epistulās rescripseram prīdiē, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday. Cie. Prīdiē Īdūs haec scripsī; eō diē apud Pomponium cram cēnātūrus, I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius. Cie.

2. The Pluperfeot after cum, si, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

SI hostes deterrere nequiverant circumvenicbant, if they were (had been) unable to deter the enemy, they surrounded them. Sall.

NOTE 1.—For the Pluperfect in the sense of the English Imperfect, see 471, 8.

NOTE 2.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of DUTY, PROPRIETY, NECESSITY, etc., see 476, 4.

¹ Observe that designated represents the action as already completed at the time designated.

² This change is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer. It is most common near the beginning and the end of letters.

³ Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. Heri, 'yesterday,' becomes to the reader pridit, 'the day before '—i. e., the day before the writing of the letter. In the same way hodit,' 'to-day,' 'this day,' becomes to the reader $c \delta dit$, 'nuar day,'

⁴ The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of *future* events which are expected to happen *before* the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

See the similar use of the Perfect, 471, 5.

^{*} That is, whenever they were unable.

VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Romam cum venero, scribam ad te, when I shall have reached Rome, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tu haec leges, ego illum fortasse convenero, when you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. The FUTURE PERFECT is sometimes used to denote the *complete* accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestitero, I shall discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The FUTURE PERFECT is sometimes found in conditional clauses where we use the Present:

Sī interpretārī potuerō, hīs verbīs ūtitur, if I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

VII. USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

RULE XXXVII.-Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patriā, was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoc feel dum lieuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

475. The Indicative is thus used in treating of facts-

I. In *Principal Clauses*, whether Declarative as in the first example or Interrogative as in the second.

II. In Subordinate Clauses. Thus-

1. In Relative Clauses:

Dixit id quod dignissimum re publica fuit, he stated that which was most worthy of the republic. Cic. Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum qui id possidet meliorem facit, is anything good which does not make him better who possesses it? Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 497; 500; 503; 507, 2, etc.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic.

NOTE 1.—For the special uses of the *Indicative* in Conditional Sentences, see 508. NOTE 2.—For the *Subjunctive* in Conditional Sentences, see 509; 510.

3. In Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dicunt, although they understand, they never speak. Cic.

Norm.—For the Subjunctive in Concessive Clauses, see 515.

^{&#}x27; Including, of course, all simple sentences.

4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic. Quia honore digni habentur, because they are deemed worthy of honor. Curt.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 516; 517.

5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic.

Note .- For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 519; 520; 521.

- 476. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:
- 1. The *Indicative* of the *Periphrastic Conjugations* is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (511, 2):

Haec condició non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted. Cic.

2. The *Historical Tenses* of the *Indicative*, particularly the *Pluperfect*, are sometimes used for *effect*, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Viceramus, nisi recepisset Antonium, we should have (lit., had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511, 1.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cumque (187, 3), take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiëns, whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoe ultimum, utcunque initum est, proelium fuit, this, however it was commenced, was the last buttle. Liv. Quidquid oritur, qualecumque est, causam habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever character it may be (lit., is), it has a cause. Cic.

4. In expressions of *Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability*, and the like, the Latin often uses the Indicative, chiefly in the historical tenses, in a manner somewhat at variance with the English idiom:

Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken. Liv. Eum contumeliis onerasti, quem colere debebas, you have loaded with insults one whom you should have (ought to have) revered. Cic. Multos possum bonos viros nominare, I might name (lit., I am able to name) many good men. Cic. Hanc mecum poteras requiescere noctem, you might rest (might have rested) with me this night. Verg.

5. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, jūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, 'it would be tedious,' melius erat, 'it would have been better':

Longum est persequi útilitates, it would be tedious (is a long task) to recount the uses. Cic. Melius fuerat, promissum non esse servatum, it would have been better that the promise should not have been kept. Cic.

Literally, it was fitting or proper that the war should not be undertaken.

SECTION III.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

- 477. The Latin Subjunctive has two principal uses-
- I. It may represent an action as WILLED or DESIRED:

 Anëmus patriam, LET US LOVE our country. Cic.
- II. It may represent an action as PROBABLE or POSSIBLE.

 Quaerat quispiam, some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic.
- 478. Tenses in the Subjunctive do not designate the time of the action so definitely as in the Indicative.
- 479. The PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses ² embraces in a vague and general manner both *present* and *future* time: ³

Amemus patriam, let us love our country (now and ever). Cic. Quaerat quispiam, some one may (or will) inquire (at any time). Cic.

480. The IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past* and sometimes to the *present*:

Crèderès victos, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Utinam possem, would that I vere able (now). Cic.

481. The Perfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past*, but more frequently to the *present* or *future*:

¹ The Latin Subjunctive, it will be remembered (p. 117, foot-note 4), contains the forms and the meaning of two kindred moods, the Subjunctive proper, and the Optative. In Latin, the forms characteristic of these two moods, used without any difference of meaning, are made to supplement each other. Thus, in the Present, the Optative forms are found in the First Conjugation, and the Subjunctive forms in the Second, Third, and Fourth. In their origin they are only special developments of certain forms of the Present Indicative, denoting continued and attempted action. From this idea of attempted action was readily developed on the one hand desire, will, as we attempt only what we desire, and on the other hand probability, possibility, as we shall very likely accomplish what we are already attempting. These two meanings, united in one word, lie at the bisis of all Subjunctive constructions in Latin. On the origin, history, and use of the Subjunctive, see Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ'; Curtius, 'Verbum,' II., pp. 55-95; Draeger, II., pp. 439-743; Roby, II., pp. 202-848; also a paper by the author on 'The Development of the Latin Subjunctive in Principal Clauses,' Transactions Am. Phil. Assoc., 1879.

² For the tenses of the Subjunctive in Subordinate clauses, see 490.

³ The Present Subjunctive in its origin is closely related both in form and in meaning to the Future Indicative. Thus, in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, no future forms for the Indicative have been developed, but Subjunctive and Optative forms supply their place, as regam, audium (Subjunctive), and regēs, reget, etc., and audiēs, audiet, etc (Optative).

Fuerit malus civis, he may have been (admit that he was) a bad citizen. Cic. Në transieris 1 Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro (now or at any time). Liv.

482. The PLUPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates to the past:

Utinam potuissem, would that I had been able. Cic.

SECTION IV.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

RULE XXXVIII.-Subjunctive of Desire, Command.

483. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED:

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Cic. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ nobīs dīligātur, let him be loved by us. Cic. Scrībere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

1. The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes, especially in the poets, by ut, $s\hat{\iota}$, δ $s\hat{\iota}$:

Utinam conata efficere possim, may I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic. Ut illum di perdant, would that the gods would destroy him. Ter.

2. Force of Tenses.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it can not be fulfilled:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Ne transieris Iberum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, utinam potuissem, would that I were able, would that I had been able. Cic.

Note.—The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered should, should have, ought to have:

Hoc dicerct, he should have said this. Clc. Mortem oppetisses, you should have met death. Clc.

3. NEOATIVES.—With the Subjunctive of Desire, the negative is ne, rarely non; with a connective, neve, neu, rarely neque:

No audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Non recodamus, let us not recode. Cic. Ames diel pater, neu sinas, etc., may you love to be called father, and may you not permit, etc. Hor. Nove minor neu sit production, let it he neither shorter nor longer. Hor.

Note. - Nodum, 'not to say,' 'much less,' is used with the Subjunctive :

Vix in tectis frigus vitatur, nedum in mari sit facile abesse ab injuria, the cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy to escape (to be absent from) injury on the sea. Cic.

4. The first person of the Subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn Affirmations:

Observe that the Perfect thus used does not at all differ in time from the Present but that it calls attention to the completion of the action.

Moriar, sī putč, may I die, if I think. Cic. Nē sim salvus, sī scrībō, may I not be safe, if I write. Cic. Sollicitat, ita vīvam, as I live, it troubles me. 1 Cic.

5. The Subjunctive of Desire is sometimes used in Relative Clauses:

Quod faustum sit, regem create, elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be suspicious). Liv. Senectūs, ad quam utinam perveniātis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive of Desire in Subordinate Clauses, see 486, III., note, with foot-note.

6. Modo, modo ne, may accompany the Subjunctive of Desire:

Modo Juppiter adsit, only let Jupiter be present. Verg. Modo no laudent, only let them not praise. Cic.

484. The Subjunctive of Desire may be in meaning—

I. OPTATIVE, as in prayers and wishes:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Di bene vertant, may the gods cause it to turn out well. Plaut.

II. HORTATIVE, as in exhortations and entreaties:

Consulamus bonis, let us consult for the good. Cic.

III. Concessive, as in admissions and concessions:

Fuerint pertinaces, grant (or admit) that they were obstinate. Cic.

IV. IMPERATIVE, as in mild commands, admonitions, warnings, etc., used chiefly in prohibitions:

Illum jocum në sīs aspernātus, do not despise that jest. Cic. Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

Note 1 .- In prohibitions, the Perfect tense is generally used:

Nê transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv.

Note 2.—Except in prohibitions, the Second Person Singular in the best prose is used almost exclusively of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one:

Isto bono ūtare, you should use (i. e., one should use) that advantage. Cic.

V. Deliberative, as in deliberative questions, to ask what should be:

Huic cëdāmus, hūjus condiciones audiāmus, shall we yield to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quid facerem, what was I to do? Verg.

RULE XXXIX.-Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE:

Hic quaerat quispiam, here some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic. Ita laudem inveniās, thus you will (or MAY) obtain praise. Ter. Ita amīcos parēs, thus you will make friends. Ter. Vix dicere ausim, I should scarcely dare to

^{&#}x27; Here ita vivam means, may I so live (i. e., may I live only in case this is true).

² Or, ought we to yield, is it your wish that we should yield!

³ Or, what should I have done?

say. Liv. Crēderēs vīctōs, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hoc nēmo dīxerit, no one would say this. Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmo dubitat), who would doubt (or who doubts = no one doubts)? Cic. Hoc quis ferre possit, who would be able to endure this? Cic.

Nore 1.—In the Potential Subjunctive, the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present, and the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect: dicerës, 'you would have said'; crēderës, putūrēs, 'you would have thought': vidērēs, cermerēs, 'you would have seen':

Tu Platonem laudāveris, you would praise Plato. Cic. Maesti, crēderēs vīctos, redeunt in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

Note 2 .- On Tenses, see also 478-482.

NOTE 8.—The Second Person Singular, especially of the Imperfect, is often used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one: crēderēs, 'you would have thought,' 'any one would have thought.'

486. In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used-

I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation modestly, doubtfully, or conditionally; see examples.

NOTE 1.—Thus, in the language of politeness and modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in verbs of wishing and thinking: relim, 'I should wish,' for rolo, 'I wish'; nolim, 'I should be unwilling'; malim, 'I should prefer':

Ego censeam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv. Mihi dari velim, I should like to have it given to me. Cic.

NOTE 2.—The Potential Subjunctive is used in the conclusion of conditional senances; see 507, 1, with foot-note.

II. In Interrogative Sentences, to ask not what is, but what is likely to be, what may be or would be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last two examples under the rule.

Note.—The Subjunctive with ut, with or without the interrogative ne, occurs in questions expressive of impatience or surprise:

Te ut ûlla res frangat, how should anything subdue you? Clc. Egone ut mentiar, that I should speak falsely? Plant.

III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam epulis careat senectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic. Quoniam non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. Ubi res posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Note.—From the Subjunctive of Desire and the Potential Subjunctive in principal clauses have been developed the various uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses.³

- ¹ After forsitan = fors sit an, 'the chance may be whether,' 'perhaps,' the Subjunctive was originally in an indirect question (529), but it may be best treated as Potential. So also with forsan and fortasse.
 - ² Some grammarians assume an elilpsis of a predicate, as crēdibile est, flerī potest, etc.
- Thus, the Subjunctive of Desire is used in final, conditional, and concessive clauses; the Potential Subjunctive in clauses of result, and in various others denoting

SECTION V.

THE IMPERATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

RULE XL.-Imperative.

487. The Imperative is used in COMMANDS, EXHORTATIONS, and ENTREATIES:

Jūstitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Tū nē cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Sī quid in tē peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have sinned against you, pardon me. Cic.

- 1. The Present Imperative corresponds to the Imperative in English:
- Justitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Perge, Catilina, go, Catiline. Cic.
 2. The Future Imperative corresponds to the imperative use of the Eng-
- lish Future with shall, or to the Imperative let, and is used.
 - 1) In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditote, you shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras petito, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Plaut.

2) In laws, orders, precepts, etc., especially in prohibitions:

Consules nemini parento, the consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Salus populi suprema lex esto, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

Note.—The general distinction between the *Present* Imperative and the *Future* is often disregarded, especially in poetry; ¹

Ubi aciem videris, tum ordines dissipa, when you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv. Quoniam supplicatio decreta est, celebratote ilios dies, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic.

3. An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, jam videbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

4. The place of the Imperative may be supplied by the Subjunctive of Desire (483), or by the Future Indicative:

Ne audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Quod optimum videbitur, faciës, you will do what shall seem best. Cic.

488. In prohibitions or negative commands, the negative $n\bar{e}$, rarely $n\bar{e}n$, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, $n\bar{e}ve$ or nvu is generally used, rarely neque:

Tũ nẽ cẽde malis, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Hominem mortuum in urbe nẽ sepelito, nẽve ũrito, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

what is likely to be. Moreover, from these two leading uses was developed the idea of a conceived or assumed action, which probably lies at the foundation of all the other uses of this mood, as in causal and temporal clauses, in indirect questions, and in the subordinate clauses of the indirect discourse.

¹ Thus the Future is especially common in certain verbs; and, indeed, in some verbs, as soid, memini, etc., it is the only form in common use.

- 489. Instead of nē with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use—
 - 1) Noli and nolite with the Infinitive:

Nölite putare, do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

2) Fac në or cavë, with the Subjunctive:

Fac ne quid aliud cures hoe tempore, do not attend to anything else at this time. Cic. Cave facias, bet are of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) $N\bar{e}$ with the Perfect Subjunctive, rarely with the Present; see 484, 1V., note 1.

SECTION VI.

MOODS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

- I. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.
- 490. In subordinate clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive conform to the following rule:

RULE XLI.-Sequence of Tenses.

491. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical:

Nîtitur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.¹ Cic. Nêmỗ erit quĩ cênseat, there will be no one who will think.¹ Cic. Quaesierās nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Ut honore dīgnus essem laborāvī, I strove to be worthy of honor. Cic.

- 492. In accordance with this rule, the Subjunctive dependent upon a principal tense, present, future, future perfect, is put—
 - 1. In the Present, to denote incomplete action:

Quaeritur car dissentiant, the question is asked why they disagree. Cic. Nemo erit qui censent, there will be no one who will think. Cic.

NOTE.—Observe that in these examples the action denoted by the Subjunctive belongs either to the present time or to the future.

2. In the Perfect, to denote completed action:

Quaeramus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what faults there were. Cic. Rogitabit me ubf fuerim, he will ask me where I have been. Ter.

Note 1.—In the sequence of tenses, the Perfect is occasionally treated as a principal tense; ²

Oblitus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said. Clc.

Note 2.—For further illustrations of the sequence of tenses, see 493, 2, note 2.

¹ The Present Subjunctive generally denotes present time in relation to the principal verb. Accordingly, vincat depending upon the present, nititur, denotes present time, while censeat depending upon the future, evit, denotes future time.

² For the treatment of the Perfect in the sequence of tenses, see 495.

- 493. The Subjunctive dependent upon an historical tense, imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect, is put—
 - 1. In the IMPERFECT, to denote incomplete action:

Timebam ne evenirent ea, I was fearing thut those things would take place (i. e., at some future time). Cic. Quaesieras nonne putarem, you had inquired whether I did not think (i. e., at that time). Cic.

NOTE.—Observe that in these examples the time of the action denoted by the Subjunctive is either the same as that of the principal verb o subsequent to it.

2. In the Pluperfect, to denote completed action:

Themistocles, cum Graeciam liberässet, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Pluperfect after an historical tense, like the Perfect after a principal tense, may represent the action as completed in future time; see 496, II.

Note 2.—The sequence of tenses may be further illustrated as follows: 1

Nescit quid faciās, He knows not what you are doing. Nesciet quid facias, He will not know what you will do.2 Nescīverit quid faclās, He will not have known what you will do. Nescit quid feceris, He knows not what you have done, or what you did? He will not know what you will have done.4 Nesciet anid feceris. Nesciverit quid feceris, He will not have known what you will have done. Nesciebat quid faceres, He did not know what you were doing.5 He did not know what you were doing.5 Nescīvit quid facerēs, Nesciverat quid faceres, He had not known what you were doing. Nesciebat quid fecisses, He did not know what you had done. Nescivit quid fēcissēs, He did not know what you had done. He had not known what you had done. Nesciverat quid fecisses,

494. The periphrastic forms in rus and dus conform to the general rule for the sequence of tenses:

Incertum est quam longa vīta futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quo missūrī classem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

- 495. PECULIARITIES IN SEQUENCE.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:
- I. In the sequence of tenses the Latin Perfect is generally treated as an historical tense, even when rendered with have, and thus admits the Imperfect or Pluperfect:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposuī, e nunc dīcam, since I have shown

- ¹ It is not intended to give all the possible meanings of the Subjunctive clauses here used, but simply to illustrate the sequence of tenses.
- Or, he will not know what you are doing. Thus, quid fucias may represent the direct question, quid faciës, 'what shall you do?' or quid faces, 'what are you doing?'
 - 3 Or, what you were doing.
 - 4 Or, what you have done, or what you did.
 - 6 Or, what you would do. Nescivit may sometimes be rendered, he has not known.
 - Exposul, though best rendered by our Perfect Definite with have, is in the Latin

what aids you have, I will now speak. Cic. Hace non ut vos excitarem locutus sum, I have not spoken this to arouse (that I might arouse) you. Cic.

Note. - For the Perfect as a principal tense, see 492, 2, note 1.

II. The *Historical Present* (467, III.) is generally treated as an *historical* tense, but sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet, he persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes. Ubii orant ut sibi parcat, the Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes.

Note.—The *Historical Present* includes the Present used of authors (467, 3), the Present with dum (467, 4), the Historical Infinitive (536, 1), etc.:

Chrysippus disputat Aethera esse eum quem homines Jovem appellärent, Chrysippus contends that he whom men call Jupiter is Aether. Cic.

III. The *Imperfect Subjunctive*, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an *historical* tense, though sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Nisi ineptum putărem, jūrărem mē ea sentire quae dicerem, if I did not think it improper, I would take an oath that I believe those things which I say. Cic. Memorare possem quibus in locis hostes populus Românus fûderit, I might state in what places the Roman people routed the enemy. Sall.

IV. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle. as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (537, 550):

Satis videor docuisse, hominis natūra quantō anteīret animantēs, Ithink I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses that of the other animals (lit., surpassed animals). Cie. Spērō forc¹ut contingat, I hope it will happen. Cic. Nōn spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv. Misērunt Delphōs cōnsultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphō to ask what they should do. Nep.

V. Clauses containing a general truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiac vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience. Cic.

VI. Clauses denoting consequence or result generally express absolute time, and are thus independent of the law of sequence.² They thus admit the Present or Perfect after historical tenses:

Epaminondas fide sie usus est, ut possit judicari, 2 Epaminondas used such

treated as the Historical Perfect. The thought is as follows: Since in the proceeding topics I set forth the aids which you have, I will now speak, etc.

¹ Literally, I hope it will be that it may happen. Here fore shares the tense of spērō, and is accordingly followed by the Present, contingut; but below it shares the tense of spērōrerat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect, dēficerent.

2 This peculiarity arises from the fact that the result of a past action may itself be

fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeo excellebat Aristides abstinentia, ut Justus sit appellatus, Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

VII. For the sequence of tenses in the indirect discourse, see 525.

- 496. FUTURE TIME IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE.—When the Future is used in the principal clause, the Future and Future Perfect tenses, wanting in the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in the subordinate clauses as follows:
- I. The Future is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Present, and (2) after an historical tense by the Imperfect:

Omnia sIc agentur ut bellum sēdētur, all things shall be so managed that the war will be brought to a close. Cic. Loquebantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, sēsē non esse pūgnātūros, they were saying that they would not jight even when Caesar should wish it. Caes.

II. The Future Perfect is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Perfect, and (2) after an historical tense by the Pluperfect:

Respondet sI id sit factum, se nociturum neminī, he replies that if this should be done (shall have been done) he will harm no one. Caes. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum, quī vīcisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Future and the Future Perfect tenses are often supplied in the same way, even when the Future does not occur in the principal clause provided the idea of future time can be easily inferred from the context:

Vereor në laborem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Quid dice ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quid hosties consilii caperent, exspectabant, they waited to see what plan the enemy would adopt. Caes. Delitui, dum vela dedissent, I hid myself until they should have set sail. Verg.

NOTE 2.—When the idea of future time must be especially emphasized in the subordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used: 2

ordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used:

Incertum est quam longa vīta futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō miasūrī clāssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

Note 3.—The Future Perfect is sometimes supplied in the Passive by futurus sim and futurus essem with the Perfect Participle: 2

Non dubito quin confects jam res futurs sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

present, and may thus be expressed by a principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jūdicārī, may be jūdged now'; when it is represented as completed, the Perfect is used: sit appellātus, has been called' (i. e., even to the present day); but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule (491).

' Sēdētur, referring to the same time as agentur, and vellet, referring to the same time as esse pūgnātūrēs, both denote future time.

2 Other traditional periphrastic forms, rarely used in either voice, are—for the Future, futurum sit ut with the Present Subjunctive, and futurum esset ut with the Imperfect; and for the Future Prefect, futurum sit ut with the Perfect, and futurum esset ut with the Pluperfect.

11. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE.

RULE XLII.-Purpose.

497. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose:

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missī sunt quī (=ut iī) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missī sunt dēlectī quī Thermopylas occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep. Domum, ubĭ habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it). Cic. Locum petit, unde (=ut inde) hostem invādat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy. Liv.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus, quō minus:

Enstitur ut vincat, he strives that HE MAY CONQUER. Cic. Punit në peceëtur, he punishes that crime MAY not BE COMMITTED. Sen. Lëgum idcirco servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus, we are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. Medico dare quo sit studiosior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic. Non recusavit quominus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep.

1. Ut or uti and $n\bar{e}$ are the usual conjunctions in clauses denoting purpose. A correlative, $ide\bar{o}$, $ideirc\bar{o}$, $e\bar{o}$, ctc., sometimes precedes, as in the third example under II.

Note.-With a connective ne becomes neve, neu, rarely neque; see 483, 3:

Lègem tulit ne quis accusaretur neve multaretur, he proposed a law that no one should he accused or punished. Nep.

2. $Qu\bar{o}$, 'by which,' 'that,' is sometimes used in clauses denoting purpose, especially with comparatives, as in the fourth example under II. $Qu\bar{o}minus$, 'by which the less,' 'that thus the less,' 'that not,' is simply $qu\bar{o}$ with the comparative minus. It is sometimes used after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, as in the last example under II.

Note.—Quō sētius also occurs in the sense of quōminus; see Cic. Inv., II., 45.

498. CLAUSES OF PURPOSE readily pass into Object Clauses,2

¹ The Subjunctive of Purpose is doubtless in origin a Subjunctive of Desire, expressing the desire or command implied in the action of the principal verb: Të rogë ut eum juvës, I ask you to aid him (I ask you, so aid him). Here the second clause, originally independent, contains the desire, wish, involved in rogë. Vereor në labërem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor (I fear, let me not increase the labor). Praestë erit pontifex qui comitia labeat, the pontiff will be present to hold the comitia (the pontiff will be present, let him hold the comitia). Liv. See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 59-62.

² An Object Clause is one which has become virtually the object of a verb. Thus, in 'opto ut id audiātis,' the clause ut id audiātis has become the object of opto, 'I desire.'

but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. With verbs signifying Desire and its Expression; hence decision, decree, etc.: 1

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Ut mihī aedēs aliquās condūcās volŏ, I wish that you would hire a house for me. Plaut. Senātus cēnsuerat, utī Aeduōs dēfenderet, the senate had decreed that he should defend the Aeduī. Caes. Servīs imperat ut filiam dēfendant, he commands his servants to defend his daughter. Cic. Tē hortor ut legās, I exhort you to read. Cic. Tē rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him. Cic. Ā rēge petivērunt nē inimīcissimum suum sēcum habēret, they asked from the king that he would not keep his worst enemy with him. Nep.

NOTE.—Verbs of determining, deciding—status, constitus, decerns, etc.—generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (533, I..1):

Constituerat, ut tribunus quereretur, he had arranged that the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senatus decrevit, darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consule should attend to it. Sall. Manere decrevit, he decided to remain. Nep.

II. With verbs and expressions denoting Effort (striving for a purpose, attaining a purpose) or IMPULSE (urging to effort): 2

Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Cūrāvī ut bene vīverem, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effect ut imperātor mitterētur, he caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. Movēmur ut bonī sīmus, we are influenced to be good. Cic.

Note 1.—Some verbs of endeavoring, striving, as conor, contendo, notor, studeo, and tento, generally take the Infinitive when no new subject is introduced; see 533:

Locum oppugnare contendit, he proceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentabo do hoc dicere, I will attempt to speak of this, Quint,

NOTE 2.—Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with facio or ago, rarely with est, a circumlocution for the Indicative: facio ut dicam = dico; facio ut serībam = scrībo: Invītus facio ut recorder, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

III. With verbs and expressions denoting Fear, Anxiety, Danger: 3

Timeo, ut labores sustineas, I fear that you will not endure the labore. Cic. Timebam ne evenirent ea, I feared that those things would happen. Cic. Vereor ne laborem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Periculum est ne ille te verbis obruat, there is danger that he will overwhelm you with words. Cic.

Note 1.—By a difference of idiom, ut must here be rendered by that not, and $n\bar{e}$ by that or lost. The Latin treats the clause as a wish or purpose.⁴

¹ As opto, postulo; cênseo, decerno, statuo, constituo, etc.; volò, malo; admoneo, moneo, hortor; oro, rogo; impero, praecipio, etc.

² As ēnītor, contendo, studeo; cūro, id ago, operam do, etc.; facio, efficio, impetro, consequor, etc.; cogo, impello, moveo, etc.

³ As metuo, timeo, vereor; periculum est, cura est, etc.

⁴ The Subjunctive of Desire is manifest if we make the subordinate clause inde

Note 2.—After verbs of fearing, $n\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$ is sometimes used for ut—regularly so after negative clauses:

Vereor në non possit, I fear that he will not be able. Cic.

NOTE 8.—Verbs of FEARING admit the Infinitive in the same sense as in English:

Vereor laudare, I fear (hesitate) to praise. 1 Cic.

499. PECULIARITIES.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:

1. Ut ne, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for ne:

Praedixit, ut në legatos dimitterent, he charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plura non dicam, not to say more (i. e., that I may not). Cic.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially after volŏ, nōlō, mālō, faciō, and after verbs of directing, urging, etc. Nē is often omitted after cavě:

Tũ velim sĩs, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fāc habeās, see (make) that you have. Cic. Senātus dēcrēvit darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consule should see to it. Sall. Cave faciās, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

Note.—Clauses with ut or $n ilde{e}$ are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences :

Amicos, optimam vitae, ut ita dicam, suppellectilem, friends, the best treasure (furniture), so to speak, of life. Cic.

3. Clauses of Purpose sometimes pass into Substantive Clauses, which, like indeclinable nouns, are used in a variety of constructions:

Per eum stetit quominus dimicaretur,3 it was owing to him (stood through him) that the battle was not fought. Caes. Volo ut mihi respondeas,3 I wish that you would answer me. Cic. Fecit pacem his condicionibus, ne qui adficerentur exsilio,3 he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep.

NOTE 1 .- For the Different Forms of Substantive Clauses, see 540.

NOTE 2.—Clauses with quiminus sometimes lose the original idea of Purpose and denote Result: 4

Non deterret sapientem mors quominus rei publicae consulat, death does not deter a voise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic.

pendent, as it was originally: Ifear, so may you endure the labors, an affirmative wish; Ifear, may I not increase the labor, a negative wish; hence $n\hat{\epsilon}$.

1 Compare vereor laudare, 'I fear to Praise,' with vereor ne laudem, 'I fear that I shall praise.'

² The Subjunctive in this and similar clauses may be explained either as a Subjunctive of *Purpose* dependent upon a verb understood, or as a Subjunctive of *Desire*; see 483.

³ In the first example, the clause quiminus dimicurëtur has become apparently the subject of stetit; in the second, ut mihi respondeus, the object of volö; and in the third, në qui adficerentur exsilio, an appositive to condictivibus.

4 Such a transition from Purpose, denoting an Intended Result, to a Simple Result is easy and natural.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT.

RULE XLIII.-Result.

500. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result'—

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cur. etc.:

Non is sum qui (= ut ego) his ūtar, I am not such a one as to use these things. Cic. Innocentia est adfectio talis animi, quae (= ut ea) noceat nomini, innocence is such a state of mind as induces no one, or as to induce no one. Cic. Neque quisquam fuit ubi nostrum jūs obtinetēmus, nor was there any one with whom (where) we could obtain our right. Cic. Est vēro cūr quis Jūnōnem laedere nolit, there is indeed a reason why (so that) one would be unwilling to offend Jūno. Ovid.

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vixit ut Athèniènsibus esset cărissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athènians. Nep. Ita laudo, ut non pertimescam, I so praise as not to fear. Cic. Ego in publicis causis ita sum versatus ut défenderim multos, I have been so occupied in public suits that I have defended many. Cic. Nihil est tam difficile quin (ut non) investigari possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

Note 1.— $Qu\bar{i}$ is often preceded by is, $t\bar{a}lis$, tantus, or some similar word; and ut, by ita, $s\bar{i}c$, tam, $ade\bar{o}$, tantopere, or some similar particle; see examples.

Note 2.—In Plantus and Terence ut sometimes accompanies qui:

Ita ut qui neget, so that he refuses. Ter.

Note 8.—For the Subjunctive denoting a result after quominus, see 499, 3, note 2.

- 501. Clauses of Result readily pass into Substantive Clauses, but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—
 - I. In Subject Clauses. Thus-
- 1. With impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is lawful, is allowed, is distant, is, etc.: 2

Fit ut quisque délectêtur, it happens that every one is delighted. Cic. Sequitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cic. Restat ut doceam, it remains that I should show. Cic. Ex quò efficitur ut voluptas non sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the highest good. Cic.

2. With predicate nouns and adjectives:

Môs est ut nollint, it is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Proximum est, ut doceam, the next point is, that I show. Cic. Non est dubium quin beneficium sit, that it is a benefit, is not doubtful. Sen.

¹ The Subjunctive of Result is doubtless in origin a Potential Subjunctive: Non is sum qui his ütar, '1 am not one who would use (or is likely to use) these things.' Hence this Subjunctive takes the negative non (ut non) like the Potential Subjunctive, while the Subjunctive of Purpose takes the negative $n\bar{e}$ like the Subjunctive of Pesire.

² As accidit, contingit, evenit, fit, restat, sequitur, licet, abest, est, etc.

NOTE.—For the Subjunctive with ut, with or without ne, in questions expressive of impatience or surprise, see 486, IL. note.

- II. In OBJECT CLAUSES. Thus-
- 1. In clauses introduced by ut after facio, efficio, of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (i. e., produces that result). Cic. Splendor vester facit ut peccare sine periculo non possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you can not err without peril. Cic. See 498, II.

2. In clauses introduced by quin after verbs of Doubting:

Non dubitabis quin sint beati, you will not doubt that they are happy. Cic.

III. In CLAUSES IN APPOSITION with nouns or pronouns:

Habet hoc virtus ut delectet, virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cic. Est hoc vitium, ut invidia gloriae comes sit, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory. Nep.

NOTE .- For the different forms of substantive clauses, see 540.

- 502. PECULIARITIES.—Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:
- 1. Ut is sometimes omitted—regularly with oportet, generally with opus est and necesse est:

Te oportet virtus trahat, it is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam habeat necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with quam-with or without ut:

Liberalius quam ut posset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Imponebat amplius quam ferre possent, he imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. After tantum abest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudėtur, ut etiam vituperėtur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised, that it is even censured. Cic.

- 503. In Relative Clauses, the Subjunctive of Result shows the following Special Constructions:
- I. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses to characterize an Indefinite or General Antecedent:

Quid est quod te delectare possit, what is there which can delight you? Cic. Nunc decis aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, now you state something which belongs to the subject. Cic. Sunt qui putent, there are some who think. Cic. Nemő est qui non cupiat, there is no one who does not desire. Cic.

¹ Here tam, talis, or some such word, is often understood.

NOTE 1.—Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod sciam, 'as far as I know,' quod meminerim, 'as far as I remember,' etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non ego te, quod sciam, unquam ante hunc diem vidi, as far as I know, I have

never seen you before this day. Plant.

Note 2.—Quod, or a relative particle, ubt, unde, quō, cūr, etc., with the Subjunctive, is used after est, 'there is reason'; non est, nihil est, 'there is no reason'; quid est, 'what reason is there?' non habeo, nihil habeo, 'I have no reason':

Est quod gaudeās, there is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plaut. Non est quod credās, there is no reason why you should believe. Sen. Nihil habeo, quod incusem senectutem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cic. Quid est cur virtus ipsa non efficiat beātōs, what reason is there why virtue itself should not make men happy? Cic.

Note 3.—The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents:

1) In poetry 1 and late prose:

Sunt quos juvat, there are some whom it delights. Hor.

2) Even in the best prose, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non audent dicere, there are some who do not dure to speak. Cic. Multa sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said. Cic.

- II. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses-
- 1. After ūnus, solus, and the like :

· Sapientia est una, quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (which would dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui creari possent, there were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

2. After dignus, indignus, idoneus, and aptus:

Fābulae dīgnae sunt, quae legantur, the fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cic. Rūfum Caesar idōneum jūdicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.

3. After comparatives with quam:

Damna mājora sunt quam quae (= ut ea) aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

504. Quin, 'who not,' 'that not,' etc., is often used to introduce a result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative. Thus—

Especially in early poetry, as in Plautus and Terence.

² $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ is a compound of the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{e}$, and appears to be used both as an indeclinable relative pronoun, viho not, and as a relative particle, by wihch not, how not, etc. Some clauses with $qu\bar{\imath}n$ may perhaps be best explained as indirect questions (529, I.). $Qu\bar{\imath}n$, meaning why not of often used in independent clauses, is a compound of the interrogative quis or $qu\bar{\imath}_1$ and $n\bar{e}$: $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ $t\bar{\imath}_1$ $h\bar{b}c$ facis, 'why do you not do it?' Liv.

As nemo, nullus, nihil, quis l'non dubito, non dubium est; non multum abest, paulum abest, nihil abest, quid abest l'non, via, aegré abstineo; mihi non tempero; non retineor; non, nihil praetermitto; facere non possum, fieri non potest; nun quam with a large class of rerbs.

1. Quin is often used in the sense of qui non, quae non, etc., as after nomo, nullus, nihil, quis?

Adest němô, quin videat, there is no one present who does not see. Cic. Němô est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Cic. Quis est quin cernat, who is there who does not perceive? Cic. Nůlla fuit cīvitās quin mitteret, there was no state which did not send. Caes. Nůlla pictūra fuit quin $(=quam\ n\delta n)$ inspěxerit, there was no painting which he did not inspect. Cic. Nůllum intermisi diem, quĩn $(=qu\delta\ n\delta n\ or\ ut\ e\delta\ n\delta n)$ aliquid darem, I allowed no day to pass without giving something (on which I would not give something). Cic.

Note.—Quin can often be best rendered by but or by without or from with a participial noun in -ing; see the last example under 1; also the last under 2.

2. Quīn is often used in the ordinary sense of ut non:

Nemo est tam fortis quin perturbetur, no one is so brave as not to be disturbed. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin investigari possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter. Retineri non poterant quin tela coicerent, they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons. Caes.

NOTE .- Is or id is sometimes expressed after quin:

Nihil est quin ld interest, there is nothing which does not perish. Cic.

- 3. Quin is used in the sense of ut $n\bar{o}n$ or of ut in subject and object clauses (501):
- 1) With facere non possum, fieri non potest, etc., in the sense of ut non: Facere non possum quin litteras mittam, I can not but send a letter. Cic. Effici non potest quin eos oderim, it can not be (be effected) that I should not hate them. Cic.
- 2) With negative expressions implying doubt and uncertainty, in the sense of w:

Agamemnon non dubitat quin Troja sit peritura, Agamemnon does not doubt that Troy will fall (perish). Cic. Non dubitari debet quin fuerint poetae, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets. Cic. Quis ignorat quin tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three races? Cic.

4. Quin is sometimes used in the sense of quominus:2

Quin loquar haec, nunquam me potes deterrere, you can never deter me from saying this. Plaut. Non deterret saplentem mors quominus rei publicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic. Non recusavit, quominus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep. Neque recusare quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes.

Note.-For non quin in Causai Clauses, see 516, 2.

1 Pronounced as if written conicerent; see 36, 4, with foot-note 1.

As after verbs of hindering, refusing, and the like. Observe that in the examples deterred and recuso are used both with quin and with quinting. They also admit the Subjunctive with ne or the Infinitive; see 505, IL.

- 505. Construction of Special Verbs.—Some verbs admit two or more different constructions. Thus—
 - I. Dubito admits-
- Quin, WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE, if it stands in a negative sentence; see 504, 3, 2).
 - 2. An Indirect Question (529, I.):

Non dubito quid putes, I do not doubt what you think. Cic. Dubito an ponam, I doubt whether I should not place. Nep.

3. The Accusative with the Infinitive:

Quis dubitat patère Europam, who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.

4. The simple Infinitive, when it means to hesitate:

Non dubitem dicere, I should not hesitate to say. Cic. Dubitamus virtutem extendere factis, do we hesitate to extend our glory (valor) by our deeds? Verg.

- II. Verbs of hindering, opposing, refusing, and the like, admit-
- 1. The Subjunctive with ne, quin, or quominus: 2

Impedior në plura dicam, I am prevented from saying (that I may not say) more. Cic. Sententiam në diceret recusavit, he refused to give an opinion. Cic. Neque recusare quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes. Intercludor dolore quominus plura scribam, I am prevented by sorrow from writing more. Cic.

2. The Accusative with the Infinitive, or the simple Infinitive:

Num ignöbilitäs sapientem beätum csse prohibēbit, will obscurity prevent a wise man from being happy? Cic. Quae facere recusem, which I should refuse to do. Hor.

IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences.

506. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood—the *Condition* and the *Conclusion*:

SI negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.3 Cic.

RULE XLIV.—Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn.

507. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī. sīn, take—
I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the sup-

posed case:

¹ That is, I am inclined to think that I should place. Observe that dubito an means 'I doubt whether not'='I am inclined to think,' and dubito num, 'I doubt whether': Dubito num dēbeam, 'I doubt whether I ought.' Plin.

² For the use of $qu\bar{i}n$, see **504**. $N\bar{e}$ and $qu\bar{o}minus$ may follow either affirmatives or negatives.

³ Here sī negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.

Sī spīritum dūcit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive. Cic. Sī tot exempla virtūtis non movent, nihil unquam movēbit, if so many examples of valor do not move (you), nothing will ever move (you). Liv.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause. Cic. Improbe feceris, nisi monueris, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact*:

Plüribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep.

1. Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Negat quis, negō, does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Rogēs mē, nihil respondeam, ask me, I shall make no reply. Cic. Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted. Verg. Lacēsse; jam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic. 2

2. A condition is sometimes introduced by the relative qui, quae, etc. = sī is, sī quis, sī quī, etc.:

Qui secum loqui poterit, sermonem alterius non requiret, if any one (lit., he who) shall be able to converse with himself, he will not need the conversation

¹ See 510, note 2.

² From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle is not an essential part of a conditional sentence. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in principal clauses; see 483; 485. Hence the Indicative was used in treating of facts, and the Subjunctive or Imperative in all other cases, Si, probably the Locative case of a pronoun, meaning (1) at that time or in that manner, and (2) at any time or in any manner, has nothing whatever to do with the mood, but merely denotes that the conclusion is connected with the condition. Thus: negat, nego, 'he denles (i. e., assume that he denles), I deny'; sī negut, nego, 'he denles at some time, then I deny'; dies deficiat, sī velim, etc., 'let me wish (Subjunctive of Desire) at any time, etc., then the day would fail me.' The Subjunctive in conditions is a Subjunctire of Desire with nearly the force of the Imperative, which may indeed be used for it when \$\vec{e}\$ is omitted, as $lac\vec{e}sse$, 'provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him).' In conclusions the Subjunctive is generally potential, as dies deficial, 'the day would fail,' but sometimes it is the Subjunctive of Desire, for which the Imperative may be substituted; as, peream, si poterunt, 'may I perish if they shall be able'; si peccari, ignosce, 'if I have erred, pardon me.' See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 70-74; 171-182.

of another. Cic. Errat longe, qui credat, etc., he greatly errs who supposes, etc. (i. e., if any one supposes, he greatly errs). Ter. Hace qui videat, nonne cogătur confiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc.? Cic.

3. A condition is sometimes introduced by cum:

Ea cum d'ixissent, quid responderes, if (when) they had said that, what should you reply? Cic.

Note 1.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with $nisi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o}, nisi\ forte,$ with the Indicative, and with $quasi, quasi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o},$ with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte însânit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quasi vêrê necesse sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Caes.

NOTE 2.—Ita—sī, 'so—if,' means only—if. Sī quidem, 'if indeed,' sometimes has nearly the force of since:

Hốc ita jūstum est, sĩ est voluntārium, this is just only if (on condition that) it is voluntary. Cic. Antīquissimum est genus poētārum, sĩ quidem Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since Homer lived before the founding of Rome. Cic.

Note 8.—Nisi or nī, 'If not,' Is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Nescio, nisi hoc video, I know not, but (except that) I observe this. Cic.

Note 4 .- Nisi si means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi sī quī scrīpsit, unless some one has written. Cic.

Note 5.-For si to be rendered to see if, to see whether, etc., see 529, 1, note 1.

Note 6.-For quod si, quod ni, quod nisi, see 453, 6.

Note 7.—The condition may be variously supplied, as by a participle, by the ablative absolute, or by the oblique case of a noun:

Non potestis, voluptate omnia dirigentes (= sī dīrigitis), retinēre virtūtem, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic. Rēctē factō (= sī rēctē factum erit), laus prōpōnitur, if it is (shall be) well done, praise is offered. Cic. Nēmō sine spē (= nisi spem habēre) sō offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.

Note 8 .- For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 527.

508. First Form.—Conditional sentences with the *In dicative in both clauses*, assuming the supposed case as *real*, may base upon it any statement which would be admissible if the supposed case were a known fact:

Si haec civitas est, civis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Si non licebat, non necesse erat, if it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Si vis, dabo tibi testes, if you wish, I will furnish you witnesses. Cic. Plūra scribam, si plūs ōtii habuero, I will write more if I shall have (shall have had) more leisure. Cic. Dolorem si non potero frangere, occultabo, if I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I shall conceal it. Cic. Parvi sunt foris arma, nisi est consilium domi, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. Si domi sum, etc.; sin i foris sum, ctc., if I am at home, etc.; but if I am abroad, etc. Plaut. Ni puto, if I do not think. Cic.

¹ Sin from $s\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{e}$, 'if not,' 'if on the contrary,' 'but if,' properly introduces a condition in contrast with another condition expressed or implied. Thus, $s\bar{\imath}n$ for $\bar{\imath}s$ is in contrast with $s\bar{\imath}$ dom $\bar{\imath}$, and means but if abroad.

1. The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by $s\bar{\imath}$, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by $s\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{\imath}n$, nisi, $n\bar{\imath}$.

2. The Time may be *present*, past, or future, but it need not be the same in both clauses. Thus the Present or the Future Perfect in the condition is often followed by the Future, as in the third and fourth examples.¹

8. Si non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly si non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus, in the second example above, the meaning is, if it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary; while in the fourth the meaning is, arms are of little value abroad, except when there is wisdom at home.

4. The Conclusion irrespective of the condition may assume a considerable variety of form. Thus:

Redargue më si mentior, refute me if I speak falsely. Cic. Moriar, ni putō, may I die, if I do not think. Cic. Quid timeam, si beätus futūrus sum, why should I fear if I am going to be happy! Cic. Si quid habës certius, velim 2 seire, if you have any information (anything more certain), I should like to know it. Cic.

5. General Truths may be expressed conditionally-

1) By the Indicative in both clauses, as in the sixth example under 508.

2) By the Second Person of the Subjunctive used of an indefinite you (= any one) in the condition, with the Indicative in the conclusiou:

Memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas, the memory is impaired, if you do not (one does not) exercise it. Cic. Nulla est excusatio peccati, si amici causa peccaveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that you have committed it for the sake of a friend. Cic.

509. Second Form.—Conditional sentences with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses represent the condition as possible:

Haec si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Improbe feeerls, nisi monuerls, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. See also 507, II.

Note 1.—The Time denoted by these tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*, is generally either present or future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its progress, the latter in its completion. Thus, loquatur, 'should speak' (now or at any future time); so of dibeat; but fixeris, though referring to the same time as loquatur, regards the action as completed.

Note 2.—The Present Subjunctive is occasionally used in conditional sentences, even when the condition is in itself contrary to fact:

¹ A conditional sentence with the Future Perfect In the condition and the Future in the conclusion, as phūra scribam, sī phūs ātiī habverō, corresponds to the Greek with tåv or $\tilde{a}\nu$ with the Aorist Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion; as, ν ios $\tilde{a}\nu$ mov \tilde{n} grs, γ \tilde{n} gas $\tilde{\epsilon}$ $\tilde{\xi}$ ets ϵ $\tilde{\nu}$ 8a λ 6s, if you will labor while young, you will have a prosperous old age.

² Observe that in each of these examples the mood in the conclusion is entirely independent of the condition. Thus, redarque is a command; moriar, a prayer, Subjunctive of Desire; quid timeam, a deliberative question (484, V.); and relim, a Potential Subjunctive (486, note i).

³ As the Present Subjunctive in point of time is very closely related to the Future Indicative in conditional sentences, so the Perfect Subjunctive is very closely related to the Future Perfect Indicative, though it may refer to past time.

Tû si hic sîs, aliter sentias, if you were I (if you were in my place), you would think differently. Ter.

NOTE 3.—When dependent upon an historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Piuperfect, by the law for Sequence of Tenses (490):

Metuit ne, si îret, retraheretur, he feared lest, if he should go, he would be brought back. Liv.

510. Third Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact*, and simply state what would have been the result if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Sī optima tenere possemus, hand sane consilio egerenus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicasset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep. Nūnquam abīsset, nisi sibī viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way. Cic. See also 507, III.

Note 1.—Here the *Imperfect* generally relates to *present* ¹ time, as in the first and second examples; the *Pluperfect* to *past* time, as in the third and fourth examples.

NOTE 2.—The Imperfect sometimes relates to pust time, especially when it expresses a continued action, or is accompanied by any word denoting past time:

Nec, sI cuperes, tibi ld facere licuisset, nor would you have been permitted to do it, if you had desired. Clo. Num Opimlum, si tum esses, temerarium civem putares, would you have thought Opimius an audacious citizen if you had lived at that time? Cle.

- 511. A Conclusion of the First Form is sometimes combined with a Condition of the Second or Third Form. Thus—
- I. The *Indicative* is often thus used in the conclusion (1) to denote a general truth, and (2) to emphasize a fact, especially with a condition introduced by nisi or nī:²

Turpis excusatió est, si quis fateatur, etc., it is a base excuse, if one admits, etc. Cic. Intrare, si possim, castra hostium voló, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I am able. Liv. Certamen aderat, ni Fabius rem expedisset, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (lit., if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair. Liv. Nec veni, nisi fata locum dedissent, nor should I have come, had not the fates assigned the place. Verg.

¹ This use of the Imperfect to denote present time was developed from the ordinary force of the Subjunctive tenses. Thus the Present denotes that which is likely to be, the Imperfect that which was likely to be, and so by implication that which is not. Compare full in the sense of was, but is not, 471, 1, 2).

² Here the condition merely introduces a qualification or an exception; see 508,3

³ The force of the indicative can not be easily shown in a translation, but the Latin conception is, I have not come without the divine quidance (expressed in the condition).

NOTE 1.—The Future Indicative is sometimes used in the conclusion because of its near relationship in force to the Present Subjunctive: 1

Si mittat, quid respondebis, if he should send, what answer shall you give? Lucr. Nec si cupias, licebit, nor, if you should desire it, will it be allowed. Cic.

Note 2.—In a negative conclusion with a negative condition, the verb poseum is generally in the Indicative: 2

Neque amicitiam tueri possumus, nisi amicos diligamus, nor should we be able to preserve friendship, if we should not love our friends. Cic.

NOTE 3.—The *Historical Tenses* of verbs denoting *Duty*, *Propriety*, *Necessity*, *Ability*, and the like, in the conclusion of conditional sentences, are generally in the Indicative:

Quem, si ülla in të pietäs esset, colere dëbëbäs, whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any filial affection in you. Cic. Vix castra, si oppūgnārētur, tūtārī poterat, he was hardly able to defend the camp, if he should be attacked. Liv. Dēlēri exercitus potuit, sī persecūti vētörēs essent, the army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the victors had pursued. Liv.

Note 4.—The *Historical Tenses* of the Indicative of still other verbs are sometimes similarly used when accompanied by paene or prope:

Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, ni unus vir suisset, the bridge almost furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have surnished it), had there not been one man. Liv.

2. The Periphrastic Forms in rus and dus in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative: 3

Quid sI hostes veniant, facturi estis, what shall you do if the enemy should come? Liv. SI quaeratur, indicandum est, if inquiry should be made, information must be given. Cic. Relicturi agros erant, nisi litteras misisset, they would have left their lands, had he not sent a letter. Cic. Quid futurum fuit, sI plebs agitari coopta esset, what would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated? Liv. Si verum respondere velles, hace erat dicenda, if you wished to answer truly, this should have been said. Cic. Si morati essetis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed, you must all have perished. Liv.

Note.—When the Perfect Indicative in the conclusion with the Subjunctive in the condition is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged, irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeo est inopia coactus ut, nisi timuisset, Gailiam repetiturus fuerit, he was so

- ¹ See 479, with foot-note 3. A conditional sentence with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion, corresponds to the Greek έαν with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion: τοῦτο εάν σκοπῆτε, ευρήσετε, if you examine this, you will find.
- ² Here, too, the use of the Indicative grows out of the relationship between the mean ing of possum, denoting ability, and that of the Potential Subjunctive denoting possibility.
- ³ The Indicative is here explained by the close relationship between the ordinary meaning of the Subjunctive, and that of the forms in rus and dus denoting that something is about to be done or ought to be done.
 - 4 Lit., were about to leave, and so would have left, had he not, etc.
- ⁵ Here repetiturus fuerit is in the Subjunctive, not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subjunctive of Result with ut; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv. Haud dubium fuit, quin nisi firmāta extrēma āgminis fuissent, ingēns accipienda clādēs fuerit, there was no doubt that, had not the rear of the line been made strong, a great disaster must have been sustained. Liv. Quaeris quid potuerit amplius assequī, sī Scīpiōnis fuisset filius, you ask what more he could have attained, if he had been the son of Scipio. Cic.

512. A Conclusion of the Third Form (510) is sometimes combined with a Condition of the Second Form (509):

Si těcum loquantur, quid responděrěs, if they should speak with you, what answer would you give? Cic.

RULE XLV.—Conditional Clauses with dum, modo, ac st, ut sī. etc.

513. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not': 2

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cic. Dum res maneant, verba fingant, let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Dummodo repellat periculum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Dum ne tibi videar, non laboro, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care. Cic.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written. Cic. Jacent, tanquam omnīnō sine animō sint, they lie as if (i. e., as they would lie if) they were entirely without mind. Cic. Quam sī vīxerīt tēcum, as if he had lived with you. Cic. Miserior es, quam sī oculōs nōn habērēs, you are more unhappy than (you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crūdēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Caes. Ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, as if they should appropriate others' possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Note 1.—In this form of conditional sentences, the Present 3 or Imperfect is used of present time, and the Perfect 3 or Pluperfect of past time; see examples above.

¹ When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the Indicative: Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

² This Subjunctive is best explained as the Subjunctive of Desire, as indicated by the negative $n\tilde{e}$ (483, 3). Thus, modo permaneat industria, 'only let industry remain'; $dum\ n\tilde{e}$ tibl' videar, 'let me not meanwhile seem so to you.' After $dum\ and\ dummodo$ the Subjunctive may perhaps be explained as Potential, but the negative $n\tilde{e}$ renders such an explanation very doubtful.

³ The English idiom would lead us to expect only the *Imperfect* and *Phyperfect*, as under 510; but the Latin often regards the condition as possible, and thus uses the *Present* and *Perfect*, as under 509.

Note 2.—Cou and sicuti are sometimes used like āc sī, ut sī, etc.:

Ceu bella forent, as if there were wars. Verg. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.

V. Moods in Concessive Clauses.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something, generally introduced in English by *though* or *although*:

Quamquam itinere fessi erant, tamen proeddunt, although they were weary with the journey, they still (yet) advanced. Sall.

Note.—The concessive particle is sometimes omitted:

Sed habeat, tamen, etc., but grant that he has it, yet, etc. Cic.

RULE XLVI.-Moods in Concessive Clauses.

515. Concessive clauses take—

I. Generally the *Indicative* in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dīcunt, though they understand, they never speak. Cic. Quamquam festinās, non est mora longa, though you are in haste, the delay is not long. Hor.

- II. The *Indicative* or *Subjunctive*, when introduced by etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, or sī, like conditional clauses with sī. Thus—
 - 1. The Indicative is used to represent the supposed case as a fact:

Gaudeo, etsi nihil sciò quod gaudeam, I rejoice, though I know no reason why I should rejoice. Plaut.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as possible:

Etsī nihil habeat in sē gloria, tamen virtūtem sequitur, though glory may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cic.

3. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Etiamsi more oppetenda esset, domi mallem, even if death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home. Cic.

III. The Subjunctive, when introduced by licet, quamvis, ut, $n\bar{e}$, cum, or the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$:

¹ Concessive clauses bear a close resemblance to conditional clauses both in form and in use. Si optimum est, 'fift is best,' is a condition; etsi optimum est, 'even if (or though) it is best,' is a concession; the one assumes a supposed case, the other admits it. The Subjunctive in concessive clauses is in general best explained in the same way as in conditional clauses; see 507, 1, foot-note 2.

In origin licet is simply the impersonal verb of the same form, and the Subjunctive

Licet irrīdeat, plūs tamen ratio valēbit, though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Non tū possīs, quamvīs excellās, you would not be able, although you excel. Cic. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, though the strength fails, still the will should be approved. Ovid. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Cum domī dīvitiae adfluercut, fuēre tamen cīvēs, etc., though wealth abounded at home, there were yet citizens, etc. Sall. Absolvite Verrem, quī (cum is) sē fateātur pecūniās cēpisse, acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

NOTE 1 .- Quamquam takes the Subjunctive-

1) When the thought, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood:

Quamquam epulis careat senectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic.

2) Sometimes, even in the best prose, apparently without any special reason:

Quamquam no id quidem suspīcionem habuerit, though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic.

8) In poetry and in late prose, the Subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon. In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction:

Quamquam invicti essent, although they were invincible. Verg. Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age. Tac.

Note 2.—Quanquam and etsi sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet:

Quanquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak? Cic. Etsi tibi assentior, and yet I assent to you. Cic.

Note 3.—Quamvis in the best prose takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in poetry and in late prose it often admits the indicative:

Erat dignităte regiă, quamvis cărebat nomine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nep.

Note 4.-Qui and cum, used concessively, generally take the Indicative in Plantus and Terence, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Audés praedicăre id, domi te esse nunc qui hic ades, do you dare to assert this, that you are nove at home, although you are here present? Plaut. Cum tabulăs emunt, tamen nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable. Sail. Cum Sicilla vexăta est, tamen, though Sicily was disturbed, yet. Cic.

Note 5.—*Ut—sīc*, or *ut—ita*, 'though—yet' (lit., 'as—so'), involving *comparison* rather than *concession*, does not require the Subjunctive:

Ut a proclifs quictem habnerant, ita non cessaverant ab opers, though (lit., as) they had had rest from battles, yet (lit., so) they had not ceased from work. Liv.

NOTE 6.—Quamvis and quantumvis, meaning 'as much as you please,' 'however much,' may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:

Non possis tu, quantumvis licet excellas, you would not be able, however much you may excel. Cic.

clause which follows, developed from Result (501, I.), is its subject. Thus, in licet irrideat (lit., 'that he may deride is allowed'), irrideat is according to the Latin conception the subject of licet. Quam-vis, compounded of quam, 'as,' and vis, 'you wish,' means as you wish; thus, quamvis excellās means literally excel as you wish (i. e., as much as you please). The Subjunctive with quamvis, ut, nē, and quī, is the Subjunctive of Desire; that with cum was developed from the temporal clause; see 521.

VI. Moods in Causal Clauses.

RULE XLVII.-Moods with quod, quia, quoniam, quando.

- 516. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take—
- I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Quoniam supplicătio decreta est, celebratote illos dies, since a thanks-giving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic. Gaude quod spectant te, rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Socrates accusetus est, quod corrumperet juventütem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint. Aristides nonne expulsus est patria, quod jüstus esset, was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cic.

1. By a special construction, the verb introducing a reason on another's authority is sometimes put in the Infinitive, depending upon a verb of saying or thinking in the Subjunctive:

Quod se bellum gesturos dicerent (= quod bellum gesturi essent, ut dicebant), because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

Note.—In the same way the Subjunctive of a verb of saying or thinking may be used in a relative clause to introduce the sentiment of another person:

Ementiendo quae ac audisse dicerent, by reporting falsely what they had heard (what they said they had heard). Sail.

2. Non Quo etc.—Non quo, non quod, non quin, rarely non quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason in distinction from the true reason:

Non quo haberem quod seriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Non quod doleant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia ne-

¹ Quod and quia are in origin relative pronouns in the neuter. Thus: $gaud\tilde{e}$ quod spectant $t\tilde{e}$, rejoice that (as to that) they behold you.' Quoniam = quom-jam, 'when low,' and $quand\tilde{o} = quam$ - $d\tilde{o}$ ($d\tilde{o} = d\tilde{e}$), 'on which day,' 'when.' $D\tilde{o}$ is probably from the same root as dum; see p. 145, foot-note 1.

² Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, as in the first example, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason without asserting any fact. Thus, in the examples under II., quad corrumperet juventiatem does not state that Socrates corrupted the youth, but simply indicates the charge made against him; nor does quad justus esset state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment. For the development of the Subjunctive in causal clauses, see p. 267, foot-note 8.

quiverat quam quod Ignoraret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

Note,—Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark:

Quod me Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, in thinking (as to the fact that you think) that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

RULE XLVIII.—Causal Clauses with cum and qui.

517. Causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{\imath}$ generally take the Subjunctive, in writers of the best period:

Necesse est, cum sint diī, animantēs esse, since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. Cic. Cum vīta metūs plena sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae cum ita sint, pērge, since these things are so, proceed. Cic. Ō vīs vēritātis, quae (cum ea) sē dēfendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic. Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns. quī (cum tū) tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēnerīs, O fortunate youth, since you (lit., who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cic.

1. In early Latin, especially in Plautus and Terence, the Indicative is the prevailing mood in causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{\imath}$, though the Subjunctive is not uncommon with $qu\bar{\imath}$:

Quom² facere officium scīs tuum, since you know how to do your duty. Plaut. Quom hoc non possum, since I have not this power. Ter. Quī advenistī, since you have come. Plaut. Tuās quī virtūtēs sciam, since I know your virtues. Plaut. Quī nēminem videam, since I see no one. Ter.

2. Clauses with either cum or qui admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact:

Habeo senectuti gratiam, quae mihi sermonis aviditatem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic. Gratu-

Clauses with cum, whether causal or temporal, illustrate the gradual extension of the use of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses. Originally they took the Indicative, unless the thought irrespective of the causal or temporal character of the clause required the Subjunctive. Thus the Ciceronian sentence, Necesse est, cum sint div, animantes esse, 'since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings,' would in early Latin have been, Necesse est, cum sunt dii, animantes esse, and would have contained two distinct statements, viz., there are gods, and it is necessary that there should be living beings. But in time the causal clause lost so much of its original force as a separate statement, and became so entirely dependent upon the principal clause, as to be little more than an adverbial modifier of the latter, like the Ablative of Cause (413) in a simple sentence. The causal clause then took the Subjunctive, and the sentence as a whole made but one distinct statement, which may be approximately rendered, in view of (because of) the existence of the gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. In the same way, temporal clauses with cum sometimes became little more than adverbial modifiers of the principal verb; see 521, II., 1, with foot-note, and 521, II., 2, with foot-note. For a special treatment of these clauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Con struction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.' * See 311, 1, with foot-note 4.

for tibl, cum tantum vales, I congratulate you that (in view of the fact that) you have so great influence. Cic.

3. When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus—

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with cum, quippe, ut, utpote:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiatur, since he flatters (as one who flatters). Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

Note.—But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact. In Sallast the Indicative is the regular construction after quippe:

Quippe qui regnum invaserat, as he had laid hold of the kingdom. Sall.

2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quoniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things can not be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intellegi noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses.1

RULE XLIX.-Temporal Clauses with postquam, etc.

518. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubī, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used:

Postquam vīdit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc. Caes. Ubi certiores facti sunt, when they were informed. Caes. Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Postquam vident, after they saw.³ Sall. Postquam nox aderat, when night was at hand. Sall.

NOTE 1.—The tense in these clauses is generally the Perfect or the Historical Present, but sometimes the Descriptive Imperfect; 4 see examples above; also 471. 4.

Note 2.—The Pluperfect Indicative is sometimes used—
1) Especially to denote the *result* of a completed action:

Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled, Nep.

2) To denote repeated action: 6

Ut quisque venerat, solébat, etc., as each one came (lit., had come), he was wont, etc. Cic.

Note 3.—Postridie quam is used like postquam:

Postridie quam tu es profectus, on the day after you started. Cic.

 In Livy and the late historians, the Pluperfect or Imperfect Subjunctive is often used to denote repeated action:

¹ On Temporal Clauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.'

² Or post quam and posted quam.

³ See 467, III., with 1.

⁴ See 469, i.

⁵ And was accordingly at the time a man of consular rank.

[•] In this case the Imperfect Indicative is generally used in the principal chause, as π the example here given.

Id ubf dixisset, hastam mittebat, whenever he had said that, he hurled (was wont to hurl) a spear. Liv.

Note.—As a rare exception, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam or posteaquam: 1

Posteaquam aedificasset classes, after he had built fleets. Cic.

2. When the verb is in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, the Subjunctive is generally used in temporal clauses:

Nölunt ubī velīs, ubī nölīs cupiunt, they are unwilling when you wish it (when one wishes it), when you are unwilling they desire it. Tcr. Priusquam incipiās, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation. Sall.

RULE L.-Temporal Clauses with dum, etc.2

519. I. Temporal clauses with dum, $d\bar{o}nec$, and quoad, in the sense of While, as long as, take the Indicative:

Haec fēel, dum licuit, I did this while it was allowed. Cic. Quoad vīxit, as long as he lived. Nep. Dum lēgēs vigēbant, as long as the laws were in force. Cic. Donec eris fēlīx, as long as you shall be prosperous. Ov. Quamdiū in provinciā fuērunt, as long as they were in the province Cic.

- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—
- 1. The *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Dēlīberā hoc, dum ego redeo, consider this until I return. Ter. Donec rediit, until he returned. Liv. Quoad renuntiātum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum défervéscat îra, let them defer it till their anger cools (i. e., that it may cool). Cic. Exspectas dum dicat, you are waiting till he speaks (i. e., that he may speak). Cic. Ea continébis quoad té videam, you will keep them till I see you. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets and the historians, dum is sometimes used with the Imperfect Subjunctive, and donec with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, like cum in narration:

Dum es gererentur, bellum concitur, while these things were in progress (were done), a war was commenced. Liv. Nihil trepidabant donec ponte agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on the bridge. Liv. Donec missi essent, until they had been sent. Liv.

NOTE 2.—Donec, in Tacitus, generally takes the Subjunctive:

¹ But the text in these cases is somewhat uncertain.

¹ See p. 291, foot-note 1.

³ See p. 295, foot-note 1.

Knows servat violentiam cursus, donec Oceano miscestur, the Rhine preserves the repidity of its current till it mingles with the ocean. Tac.

RULE LI.—Temporal Clauses with antequam and priusquam.

- 520. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam'—
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put—
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic. Antequam in Siciliam vēnī, before I came into Sicily. Cic. Antequam cōgnō-verō, before I shall have ascertained. Cic. Nec prius respēxī quam vēnīmus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Verg.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, exponam consilium, I will set forth mu plan before I (can) speak of the republic (i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic). Cic. Non prius duces dimittunt, quam isit concessum, they did not dismiss the leaders till it was granted. Caes. Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est, before you begin there is need of deliberation (i. e., as preparatory to beginning). Sall. Tempestas minatur, antequam surgat, the tempest threatens, before it rises. Sen. Collem, priusquam sentiatur, communit, he fortified the hill before it was (could be) perceived. Caes.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

Often written ante quam and prius quam, sometimes with intervening words between ante or prius and quam. See also p. 291, foot-note 1.

² The Future is used only in early Latin, as in Plautus and Cato.

³ Remember that the Future is supplied in the Subjunctive by the Present; see 496.

⁴ Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time. Antequam dicam is assayl equivalent to ut posteā dicam: 'I will set forth my views, that I may afterward speak of the republic.'

⁵ Remember also that in temporal clauses the second person singular with an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, is generally in the Subjunctive; see 518, 2.

⁶ Potential Subjunctive; see 486, 111.

⁷ The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses is not always to be referred to the same principle. Sometimes, like the Subjunctive after dum, it is best explained as the Subjunctive of Purpose, as in the first example and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after cum; see p. 295, foot-mote 1.

Non prius egressus est quam rex eum in fidem reciperet, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection. Nep. Priusquam peteret consulatum, insanit, he was insane before he sought the consulship. Liv. Prius visus est Caesar, quam fama perferrétur, Caesar appeared before any tidings were brought. Caes. Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi, before they were able to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic. Paucis ante diebus, quam Syracusae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv.

Note 1.—When the principal clause is negative and contains an historical tense, the temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the last example under I., 1; but it sometimes takes the Subjunctive, as in the first example under II.

Note 2 — Prīdiē quam takes the same moods as priusquam:

Prīdiē quam scripsī, the day before I wrote. Cic. Pridiē quam perīret, somniāvis, he had a dream on the day before he died. Suet.

Note 3.—For the Subjunctive of the second person with an indefinite subject, see 518, 2.

RULE LII.-Temporal Clauses with cum.

521. In temporal clauses with cum '-

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the *Indicative*:

Cum verba faciunt, mājōrēs suōs extollunt, when they speak, they extol their ancestors. Sall. Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, when there is teisure, I am wont to read books. Cic. Ad tē scribam, cum plūs ōtiī nactus erō, I shall write to you when I shall have obtained more leisure. Cic. Omnia sunt incerta cum ā jūre discessum est, all things are uncertain when one has departed from the right. Cic.

- II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put-
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Päruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Nõndum profectus erat, cum haec gerēbantur, he had not yet started when these things took place. Liv. Tum cum rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, Rōmae fidēs concidit, then, when many had lost great fortunes, credit fell at Rome. Cic. Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fēcerat, hostēs refugiēbant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated. Caes.

See p. 290, foot-note 1, with the works of Hoffmann and Lübbert there mentioned.

⁹ Discessum est is an Impersonal Passive, a departure has been made; see 301, 1.

³ Here the temporal clause not only defines the *time* of *pārnit*, but also makes a distinct and separate statement, vlz., *it was necessary*; see p. 295, foot-note 1; also, p. 290, foot-note 1.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicărem, tabellării vēnērunt, while I was folding the letter (i. e., during the act), the postmen came.\(^1\) Cic. Cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur, dēcessit, he died while he was returning (during his return) from Egypt. Nep. Cum dīmicāret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain. Nep. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens. Cic. Cum trīduī viam perfēcisset, nūntiātum est, etc., when he had accomplished a journey of three days, it was announced, etc. Caes. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, matūrat ab urbe proficiscī, when this was (had been) announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Caes.

1) Cum with the force of a relative after tempus, aetās, and the like, takes-

(1) Sometimes the Indicative, to state a fact:

Fuit tempus, cum homines vagabantur, there was a time when men led a vandering life. Cic.

NOTE.— Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc.:

Fuit cum hoc dici poterat, there was a time when this could be said. Liv.

(2) Generally the Subjunctive, to characterize the period: 2

Id saeculum cum plēna Graecia poētārum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, cum desideres, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic.

Note 1.— Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc. :

Fult cum arbitrarer, there was a time when I thought. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Memini cum. 'I remember when,' generally takes the Indicative, but audio cum, video cum, and animadverto cum, generally the Subjunctive:

Memini cum mihi desipere videbare, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise. Cic. Audivi cum diceret, I heard him say (lit., when he said). Cic.

2) Cum, meaning from the time when, since, takes the Indicative:

Centum anni sunt, cum dictător fuit, it is one hundred years since he was dictator. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Cum...tum, in the sense of 'not only...but also,' 'both...and,' generally takes the *Indicative* in both clauses, but in the sense of 'though...yet,' the Subjunctive in the first clause and the *Indicative* in the second:

Cum antea distinébar, tum hôc tempore distineor, not only was I occupied before,

In the imperfect and Pluperfect tenses the choice of mood often depends not so much upon the nature of the thought, as upon the intention and feeling of the writer at the moment. If he wishes to assert that the action of the temporal clause is an historical fact, he uses the Indicative; but if he introduces it for the sole purpose of defining the time of the principal action, he uses the Subjunctive. Thus, cam epistulam complication does not assert that I folded the letter, but, assuming that as admitted, it makes use of it in defining the time of renerunt. See also foot-note under I above; also p. 290, foot-note 1.

² Like the Subjunctive in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents; see 503, L

but I am also occupied now. Cic. Quae cum sint gravia, tum illud acerdissimur est, though these things are severe, that is the most grievous. Cic.

NOTE 2.—For cum in Causal clauses, see 517.

NOTE 3.—For cum in Concessive clauses, see 515, III.

VIII. INDIRECT DISCOURSE— Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua.

Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse.

522. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse— $\bar{O}r\hat{a}$ -tiŏ Oblīqua:

Platonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Responded to dolorem ferre moderate, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Utilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

- 1. In distinction from the Indirect Discourse—Õrātiŏ Oblīqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse—Õrātiŏ Rēcta.
 - 2. Words quoted without change belong to the DIRECT DISCOURSE:

Rex 'duumviros' inquit 'secundum legem facio,' the king said, 'I appoint duumviros according to law.' Liv.

RULE LIII.-Moods in Principal Clauses.

- 523. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the *Infinitive* or *Subjunctive* as follows:
- I. When Declarative, they take the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*.

Dicēbat animōs esse dīvīnōs, he was wont to say that souls are divine. Čic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Catŏ mīrārī sē āiēbat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic. Hippiās glōriātus est, annulum sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

NOTE.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

¹ Thus, in the first example, Platônem in Ruliam vēnisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Platô in Îtaliam vēnit.

² In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) animī sunt divīnī, (2) Platō Tarentum vēnīt, (3) mīror, and (4) annulum meā manā confēcī. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in mīror and confēcī are expressed with the Infinitive, as mīrārī sē, sē confēcīsse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied; see second example under II., 2, below.

Pythia praccepit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sumerent; incepts prospera futura, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

II. When Interrogative, they take-

1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulata Caesaris respondit, quid sibi vellet, cur veniret, to the semands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come? Caes.

Note. - Deliberative questions retain the Subjunctive from the direct discourse;

In spem venerat se posse, etc.; cur fortunam perielitäretur, he hoped (had come into hope) that he was able, etc.; why should he try fortune? Caes.

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:²

Docēbant rem esse testimōniō, etc.; quid esse levius, etc., they showed that the fact was a proof (for a proof), etc.; what was more inconsiderate, etc.? Caes. Respondit, num memoriam dēpōnere posse, he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes.

III. When Imperative, they take the Subjunctive:

Scrībit Labiēnō cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that Le should come) with a legion. Caes. Redditur responsum, castrīs sē tenērent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Mīlitēs certiōrēs facit, sē reficerent, he directed the soldiers to refresh themselves. Caes. Ōrābant ut sibǐ auxilium ferret, they prayed that he would bring them help. Caes. Nūntius vēnit, nē dubitāret, a message came that he should not hesitate. Nep. Cohortātus est, nē perturbārentur, he exhorted them not to be alarmed. Caes.

Note.—An affirmative command takes the Subjunctive without ut, except after verbs of wishing and asking, but a negative command takes the Subjunctive with $n\hat{e}$; see examples.

In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) quid tibi vist cūr venist and (2) cūr perioliter?

? A question used for rhetorical effect in place of an assertion is called a *Rhetorical Question*, as num potest, 'can be?' = nin potest, 'he can not'; quid est turpius, 'what is baser?' = nihil est turpius, 'nothing is baser.' Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person.' As such questions are aquivalent to declarative sentences, they take the same construction, the Infinitive with its subject.

Direct discourse—(1) qu'il est levius = nihil est levius, and (2) num memoriam dépônere possum = memoriam dépônere non possum.

4 Imperative sentences include those sentences which take the Subjunctive of Desire; see 484.

In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) cum logione veni, (2) castris vos tenete, (3) vos reficite, (4) nobis auxilium fer, (5) nobi dubitare, and (6) se perturbati attis

RULE LIV.-Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

524. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive:

Respondit sẽ id quod in Nerviis fēcisset factūrum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii. Caes. Hippiās glōriātus est, annulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cic.

1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is sometimes used. Thus-

 In clauses introduced by the relative pronoun, or by relative adverbs, ubi, unde, quare, etc., when they have the force of principal clauses (453):

Ad eum défértur, esse civem Romanum qui quererêtur, quem (= et eum) asservatum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. Te suspicor elsdem, quibus me ipsum, commoveri, Isuspect that you are moved by the same things as I. Cic.

2) In clauses introduced by cum, quam, quamquam, quia, and some other

conjunctions, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dīxisse Antonium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic. Dicit, sē moenibus inclūsos tenēre eos, quia per agros vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 535, I., 5 and 6.

2. The Indicative is used-

1) In parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the *Indirect Discourse* without strictly forming a part of it:

Referunt silvam esse, quae appellatur Bacenis, ** they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes. Audio Gellium philosophos qui tune erant ** convocasse, I hear that Gellius called together the philosophers of that day (lit., who then were). Cic.

2) Sometimes in clauses not parenthetical, to give prominence to the fact

stated, especially in relative and temporal clauses:

Certior factus est ex ea parte vici, quam Gallis concesserat, omnes discessisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes. Dicunt illum diem clarissimum fuisse cum domum reductus est a patribus, they say that the day when he was sonducted home by the fathers was the most illustrious. Cic.

525. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive: 4 but notice the following special points:

2 Direct, annulum quem habeo med manū confēci.

4 See 490-496 and 537

¹ Direct, faciam id quod in Nerviis fēci.

⁵ These clauses, quae appellatur Bacenis and qui tunc erant, are not strictly parts of the general report, but explanations added by the narrator.

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs sibǐ dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes. Exitus fuit orationis, neque ullos vacare agros, qui darī possint, the close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Agunt ut dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, they arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whenee the victory may have been). Liv. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum qui vicisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

NOTE. -- For Tenses in Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse, see 527.

Pronouns and Persons in Indirect Discourse.

526. In passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person,² and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Glöriätus est, annulum sẽ suā manū confēcisse, * he boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic. Redditur responsum, castrīs sẽ tenērent, * the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Respondit, sī obsidēs ab iīs sibǐ deutur, sẽsẽ cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, * he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them. Caes.

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

527. Conditional sentences, in passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the Indirect, undergo the following changes:

¹ In the direct discourse—(1) ibi imperium erit, unde victòria fuerit, and (2) règ năbit qui vicerit.

² Thus—(1) ego is changed to suī, sibī, etc., or to ipse; meus and noster to suus; (2) bū to is or ille, sometimes to suī, etc.; tuus and rester to suus or to the Genitive of is; and (3) hīc and iste to ille. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in the Indirect discourse in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed; Adfirmūvī quidvīs mē perpessūrum, I usserted that I would endure anything. Cic. Responded tē dolorem ferre moderatē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Clc.

³ Direct, annulum ego med manū confēci. Ego becomes sē, and med, sud.

Direct, castris vos tenete. Vos becomes se, and tenete, tenerent.

⁵ Direct, si obsidés à vôbis mihi dabuntur, vôbiscum pâcem faciam. A vôbis becomes ab iis; mihi becomes sibi; vôbiscum, cum iis; and the implied subject of faciam becomes sêsê, the subject of esse factūrum.

I. In the First Form, the *Indicative* is changed to the *Subjunctive* in the condition and to the *Infinitive* in the conclusion:

Respondit, sI quid Caesar se velit, illum ad se venire oportere, he replied, if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him. Caes.

Note.—In all forms of conditional sentences the conclusion, when imperative, and generally when interrogative, takes the Subjunctive according to 523:

Responderunt. sī non aequum existimāret, etc., cūr postulāret,² etc., they replied, if he did not think it fair, etc., why did he demand, etc. Caes. Eum certierem fēcērunt, sī suās rēs manēre vellet, Alcihiadem persequerētur,³ they informed him that if he wished his institutions to be permanent, he should take measures against Alcibiades. Nep. Dīc quidnam factīrus fuerīs, sī cēnsor fuissēs,⁴ say what you would have done, if you had been censor. Liv.

II. In the Second Form, the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in the condition remains unchanged after a principal tense, but may be changed 5 to the Imperfect or Pluperfect after an historical tense, and in the conclusion it is changed to the Future Infinitive:

Respondit, sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter sēsē recūsātūrum populī Romānī amīcitiam, he replied that if the tribute should be remitted, he would gladly renounce the friendship of the Roman people. Caes.

NOTE .- See note under I.

III. In the Third Form, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive remains unchanged in the condition, regardless of the tense of the principal verb, but in the conclusion it is changed to the Periphrastic Infinitive in -rus fuisse, rarely to that in -rus esse:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, he replied that if he wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him. Caes. Clāmitābat, sī ille adesset, ventūros esse, he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caes.

NOTE 1.—In the conclusion, the periphrastic form futurum futisse ut with the Subjunctive is used in the Passive voice, and sometimes in the Active:

Nisi nuntii essent alläti, existimäbant futurum fuisse ut oppidum ämitteretur, they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caes.

Note 2.—In conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the condition, and with an historical tense of the Indicative in the conclusion—

1 Direct, si quid Caesar më vult, illum ad më venire oportet. For change of pro nouns see 526, and for the tense of relit see 525, 1.

2 Direct, sī non aequum existimās, cūr postulās?

- ² Direct, sī tuās rēs manēre vīs, Alcibiadem persequere. Notice change in the pronoun and in the person of the verb; see 526.
 - 4 Direct, quidnam fēcissēs (or factūrus fuistī), sī cēnsor fuissēs.

5 But is often retained unchanged according to 525, 1.

- 6 Direct, sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter recūsem populī Romānī amīcitiam. or sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter recūsābo populī Romānī amīcitiam. Observe that these two forms become identical in the indirect discourse.
- 7 Direct—(1) et quid miht à Caesare opus esset, ad eum rênissem; (2) st ille sdesset, ventrent; and (3) nisi nûntit essent allâti, oppidum âmissum esset.

1) The Indicative is generally changed to the Perfect Infinitive:

Memento istam dignitatem të non potnisse consequi, nisi meis consiliis paruissos, remember that you would not have been able to attain that dignity, if you had not followed my counsels. Cic.

2) The Indicative is changed to the Perfect Subjunctive if the context requires that mood:

Quis dubitat quin si Saguntinis tulissemus operam, aversuri bellum fuerimus, who doubts that we should have averted the war, if we had carried aid to the Sugurtines? Liv. Scimus quid, si vixisset, facturus fuerit, we know what he would have lone, if he had lived. Liv.

Indirect Clauses.

528. The indirect discourse in its widest application includes—

1. Subordinate clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than the writer; see 516:

Omnes libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donavit, he gave to me all the books which his brother had left.² Cic.

2. Indirect questions; see 529, I.

Note.—A clause which involves a question without directly asking it is called an Indirect or $Dependent\ Question$:

Quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe.3 Cic.

3. Many subordinate clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive; see 529, II.

RULE LV.-Moods in Indirect Clauses.

529. The Subjunctive is used—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cūr doctissimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesicrās, nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what will be, is the question. Cic. Quaerit quīnam ēventus, sī foret bellātum, futūrus fuerit, he asks what would have been the result if war had been wayed. Līv. Dubitō num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. Incerta feror sī Juppiter velit, I am rendered uncertain whether Jupiter wishes. Verg. Ut tē oblectēs scīrc cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself. Cic. Difficile

¹ Direct—(1) istam dignitātem consegui non potuistī, nisi meis consiliīs pāruisees; (2) et Saguntīnis tulissēmus operam, bellum āversūrī fuimus; (8) quid, st viæisset, factūrus fuit?

² That is, which he said his brother had left.

³ Here no question is directly asked. We have simply the statement, 'he asked whether his shield was safe,' but this statement involves the question, calrusne est olipens, 'is my shield safe?'

dictū est utrum timuerint an dīlēxerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Cic.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indīgnius est quam eum quī culpā careat suppliciō non carēre, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment. Cic. Utrum difficilius esset negāre tibǐ an efficere id quod rogārēs diū dubitāvī, whether it would be more difficult to refuse your request or to do that which you ask, I have long doubted. Cic. Recordātione nostrae amīcitiae sīc fruor ut beātē vīxisse videar quia cum Scīpione vīxerim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Cic. Naevium rogat ut cūret quod dīxisset, he asked Naevius to attend to that which he had mentioned. Cic. Vereor nē, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I fear that, while I wish to diminish the labor. I shall increase it. Cic.

Note 1.—In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, observe-

 That the Subjunctive is used when the clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given.

2) That the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and

when they give special prominence to the fact stated:

Milites mist, ut eos qui fügerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i. e., the fugitives). Caes. Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam, vel in iis quos nunquam vidimus, diligamus, such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cie.

Note 2.—In clauses introduced by dum, the Indicative is very common, especially in the poets and historians:

Fuere qui, dum dubitat Scaevinus, hortarentur Pisonem, there were those who exhorted Piso, while Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 467, 4.

1. Indirect or dependent questions, like those not dependent (351, 1), are introduced by interrogative pronouns or other interrogative words, as quis, qui, quālis, etc.; quid, cūr, nē, nōnne, num; rarely by sī, 'whether,' and ut, 'how'; see examples above.

Note 1.—Si is sometimes best rendered to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc. .

Te adeunt, sī quid velīs, they come to you to see whether you wish anything. Cic.

Note 2.—In the poets si is sometimes similarly used with the Indicative:

Inspice si possum dönüta repõnere, examine me to see whether I am able to restore your gifts. Hor.

Note 3.—In indirect questions num does not necessarily imply negation.

Note 4.—An indirect question may readily be changed to a direct or independent question.

2. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted after the principal verb:

¹ Thus the direct question involved in the first example is, cūr doctissimi hominės dissentiunt, 'why do the most learned men disagree?' In the second, nonne putās, 'do you not think?'

Ego illum nesció qui fuerit, I do not know (him) who he was. Ter. Dic hominem qui sit, tell who the man is. Plaut.

3. Indirect double questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (353). Thus—

1) They generally take utrum or -ne in the first member and an in the second:

Quaeritur virtūs suamne propter dignitātem an propter frūctūs aliquōs expetātur, it is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantaces. Cic.

2) But they sometimes omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an or -ne in the sense of or, and neene or an non in the sense of or not:

Quaeritur nătūră an doctrină possit effici virtūs, it is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature, or by education. Cic. Sapientia beātōs efficiat necne quaestiŏ est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question. Cic.

Note 1.—Other forms, as -ne . . . -ne, an . . . an, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominosne feraene, quaerere, to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts. Verg.

Note 2.—An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used after verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubito an, nescio an, haud scio an, 'I doubt whether not,' 'I know not whether not' = 'I am inclined to think'; dubium est an, invertum est an, 'it is uncertain whether not' = 'It is probable':

Dubito an Thrasybulum primum omnium ponam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all (i. e., I am inclined to think I should). Nep.

Note 3 .- An sometimes seems to have the force of aut:

Cum Simonides, an quis allus, 1 politiceretur, when Simonides or some other one promised. Cic.

4. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question (1) when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question, and (2) generally, not always, when it represents a Future Indicative; see the fifth and sixth examples under 529, I.

5. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished-

1) From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentio (relative clause), I will tell that which (id quod) I think? Cic. Dicam quid intellegam (indirect question), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaerāmus ubš maleficium est, let us seek there (ibš) where the crime is. Cic.

2) From direct questions and exclamations:

¹ Some critics treat an quis alius as a direct question inserted parenthetically: or was it some other one?

² In the first and third examples, $quod\ sentio\$ and $ub\tilde{\imath}$. . . est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of quod, and $ib\tilde{\imath}$ as the antecedent or correlative of $ub\tilde{\imath}$; but in the second example, $quid\ intellegam$ is an indirect question and the object of $d\tilde{\imath}cam$: $I\ will\ tell\$ (what?) what $I\ know$ (i. e., will answer that question).

Quid agendum cst? nesció, what is to be done? I know not. Cio. Vide quam conversa res est, see! how changed is the case. Cio.

3) From clauses introduced by nesció quis = quidam, 2 'some one,' nesció quòmodo = quòdammodo, 'in some way,' mirum quantum, 'wonderfully much,' wonderfully,' etc. These take the Indicative:

Nescio quid animus praesagit, the mind forebodes, I know not what. Ter. Id mīrum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i. e., it wouderfully profited). Liv.

6. Personal Construction.—Instead of an impersonal verb with an indirect question as subject, the personal construction is sometimes used, as follows:

Perspiciuntur quam sint leves,4 it is seen how inconstant they are! Cic.

7. The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in early Latin and in the poets, especially in Plautus and Terence:

Si memorare velim, quam fideli animo fui, possum, if I should wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

530. The directions already given for converting the DIRECT DISCOURSE, Ōrātiŏ Rēcta, into the INDIRECT, Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua, are further illustrated in the following passage from Caesar:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrare coepit: 'Nē quid gravius in fratrem statueris ; scio illa esse vēra, nec quisquam ex eō plus quam ego doloris capit, propterea quod cum ipse grātiā plūrimum domī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter adulescentiam poterat, per mē crēvit; quibus opibus ac nervīs non sõlum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem meam ūtitur; ego tamen et amore fraterno et existimătione vulgi commoveor. Quod si quid ěī ā tē gravius acciderit, cum ipse hunc locum amīcitiae apud tē teneam, nēmő existimābit, non meā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē tōtĭus Galliae animī ā mē āvertentur.'

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrare coepit, ne quid gravius in fratrem statueret ; scire se illa esse vēra, nec quemquam ex eō plūs quam se doloris capere, proptereā quod cum ipse grātiā plūrimum doniī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter adulèscentiam posset, per sè crēvisset; quibus opibus āc nervīs non solum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem suam ūterētur : sēsē tamen et amore fraterno et existimătione vulgi commoveri. Quod sī quid ěī ā Caesare gravius accidisset, cum ipse eum locum amīcitiae apud eum teneret, neminem existimaturum, non suā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē futūrum utī totius Galliae animī a sē āverterentur. Caes., B. G., I., 20.

¹ Quid agendum sit nescio, *I know not what is to be done, would be an indirect question.

² See 191, note.

³ Praesāgit does not depend upon nesciö, but is entirely independent. Nesciö quid animus praesāgiat would be an indirect question, and would mean, I know not what the mind forebodes.

⁴ Lit., they are seen. Observe that this personal construction corresponds to the Active, perspiciunt eos quam sint leves, 'they perceive (them) how inconstant they are.' See also ego illum nesciò qui fuerit, 539, 2.

Norg .- In this illustration observe the following points:

- 1) That the Indicative in the principal clauses of the direct discourse is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive in the indirect, and that the Subjunctive, statueris, denoting incomplete action, is changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive after the historical tense, coepit.
- 2) That in the subordinate clauses the verbs denoting incomplete action are changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive, while those denoting completed action are changed to the Pluperfect Subjunctive.²
- That sciō becomes scīre sē (i. e., that the subject of the Infinitive is generally expressed).
- 4) That the pronouns of the first person are changed to reflexives; and that those of the second person are changed to is.³
- 531. The process by which the Indirect Discourse, *Orātio Obliqua*, is changed to the Direct, *Orātiŏ Rēcta*, is illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit, trānsiese Rhēnum esee non suā sponte, sed rogātum et arcessitum ā Gallis. Sē prius in Galliam vēniese quam populum Romānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessiones venīret? Cacs., B. G., I., 44.

Ita respondit, eo sibi minus dubitationis darī quod eas res quas legati Helvētii commemorāssent memoria tenèret. Quod si veteris contumēliae oblivisci vellet, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēponere posse? Cum ea ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ab its sibi dentur, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum. Caes., B. G., I., 14.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit: 'Trānsii Rhēnum non meā sponte, sed rogātus et arcessitus ā Gallis. Ego prius in Galliam vēnī quam populus Rōmānus. Quid tihī vīs? Cūr in meās possessionēs venīs?'

Ita respondit: 'Eō mihī minus dubitātionis datur quod eās rēs quās vēs, lēgātī Helvētīi, commemorāvistis, memoriā teneō. Quod sī veteris contumeliae oblīvīsei volō, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēpōnere possum? Cum haec ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ā vōhīs mihī dabuntur, vōbīseum pācem faciam.'

NOTE.—In these illustrations observe the following points:

- 1) That in the principal clauses (1) the Infinitives with se or see, expressed or understood, are changed to the first person of the Indicative; 4 (2) other Infinitives are also changed to the Indicative, but the person is determined by the context; 5 and (3)
- ¹ Thus soio becomes soire; capit, capere; commoreor, commoveri; existimābit, existimātūrum (esse); and arertentur, futūrum utī arertentur. This last form, futūrum utī arerterentur, is the Periphrastic Future Infinitive Passive; see 537, 8.
- 2 Thus poterat becomes posset; ütitur, üteretur; teneam, teneret; but crevit becomes crevisset; accident, accidisset.
- ³ Thus (1) ego is changed to sē; mē to sē; meam to suam; meā to suā; and (2) tē to eum; hunc to eum.
- 4 Thus transiese see is changed to transit; se venisse to ego vent; see esse facturem to faciam; posse, with se understood, to possum.
- * Thus minus darī becomes minus datur; but if the subject of the Infinitive is of the second person, the Indicative will also be of that person. Respondeo të dolorem ferre moderātē thus becomes respondeo, *dolorem moderātē fere; * see p. 299, foot sote \$2.

Subjunctives are changed to the Indicative after interrogative words, and to the imperative in other situations.

2) That in the subordinate clauses the Subjunctive, unless required by the thought trespective of the indirect discourse, is changed to the Indicative.³

8) That the reflexive pronouns suī, sibī, etc., and suus are changed (1) generally to pronouns of the first person, but (2) sometimes to those of the second person.⁴

4) That is and itle are (1) generally changed to tū or hīc, but (2) sometimes retained.5

5) That a noun referring to the person or persons addressed may be put in the Vocative preceded by $t\bar{u}$ or $v\bar{o}s_*$.

SECTION VII.

INFINITIVE .- SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. Infinitive.

532. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

RULE LVI.-Infinitive.

533. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Audeō dicere, I dare say (I venture to say). Cic. Haec vitāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things. Cic. Constituit non progredi, he decided

- ¹ Thus quid vellet is changed to quid vist cur veniret to cur venist Vellet and veniret are in the Imperfect simply because dependent upon an historical tense, and are therefore changed to the Present in the direct discourse. In deliberative questions (484, V.) the Subjunctive is retained in the direct discourse.
- ² Thus cum legione veniat, under 523, III., becomes cum legione vent. The Subjunctive may of course be retained in the direct discourse whenever the thought requires that mood.
- ³ Thus commemorassent, pinperfect after an historical tense, is changed to commemoravistis; teneret to teneo; rellet to volo; dentur to dabuntur. Sint is retained unchanged because required in a causal clause with cum; see 517.
- 4 Thus (1) trānsīse sēsē is changed to trānsīī, with subject implied in the ending; suā to meā; sē vēnīsse to ego vēnī, with emphatic subject; suās to meās; sibī to mihī; sēsē esse factīrum to faciam; (2) sibī to tibī, in quid sibī vellet. As the subject of an Infinitive (536), sē or sēsē often corresponds to the pronominal subject implied in the ending of a finite verb; see p. 187, foot-note 5.
- 5 Thus (1) ab its is changed to ā vöbīs; cum its to vöbīsoum; ea ita sini to haeo ita sini; (2) eās rēs is retained.
- Thus lėgātī Helvētii, the subject of commemorāssent, is changed to võs, lėgātī Helvētii
- Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been the Dative case of an abstract verbal noun, and to have been used to denote the purpose or end (384, 1, 3) for which anything is or is done. Being thus only loosely connected with the verb of the aentence, it readily lost its special force as a case and soon began to be employed with considerable freedom in a variety of constructions. In this respect the history of the Infinitive resem-

not to advance. Caes. Crēdulī esse coepērunt, they began to be credulous. Cic. Vincere scīs, you know how to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Victōriā ūtī nescīs, you do not know how to use victory. Liv. Latīnē loquī didicerat, he had learned to speak Latin. Sall. Dēbēs hoc rescrībere, you ought to write this in reply. Hor. Nēmo mortem effugere potest, no one is able to escape death. Cic. Solent cōgitāre, they are accustomed to think. Cic.

- I. The Infinitive is thus used-
- 1. With Transitive Verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to owe, etc.; see examples above.

Note 1.—For the Subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 498, I., note. Note 2.—See also 498, II., note 1.

- 2. With Intransitive Verbs meaning to be able; to be wont, be accustomed, etc.; see examples above.
- II. In special constructions the Infinitive has nearly the force of a DATIVE OF PURPOSE OR END— 1
 - 1. With Intransitive Verbs:

Non populare penates venimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes. Verg. Conjuravere patriam incendere, they conspired to destroy their country with fire. Sall.

2. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus egit altos visere montes, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Quid habes dicere, what have you to say? Cic. Dederat comam diffundere ventis, she had given her hair to the winds to scatter. Verg.²

3. With Adjectives:

Est paratus audire, he is prepared to hear (for hearing). Cic. Avidi committere pugnam, eager to engage (for engaging) in battle. Ovid. Fons rive dare nomen idoneus, a fountain fit to give a name to the river. Hor.

Note 1.—This use of the Infinitive is mostly poetical.

Note 2.—With adjectives and with participles used as adjectives the Infinitive is rare in prose, but is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantare peritus, skilled in singing. Verg. Pélides cédere nescius, l'elides not knowing how to yield. Hor. Certa mori, determined to die. Verg. Dignus déscribl, worthy to be described. Hor. Vitulus niveus vidéri, a culf snow-white to view. Hor.

bles that of adverbs from the oblique cases of nouns. As such adverbs are often used with greater freedom than the cases which they represent, so the Latin Infinitive often appears in connections where, as a Dative, it would not have been at all admissible. Upon the Origin and History of the Indo-European Infinitive, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitive.'

- ¹ In these constructions the Infinitive retains its original force and use; see 532, foot-note.
- ² In these examples with transitive verbs observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under 384, II., and that the Accusative Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under 390, IL
 - * Niveus videri, like the Greek λευκὸς ἰδέσθαι.

Piger scribendi ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing. Her. Snum of ficium facere immemor est, he forgets (is forgetful) to do his duty. Plant.

Note 3.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as tempus est, copia est, etc.:

Cupido Stygios innare lacus, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Verg. Qui bus molliter vivere copia erat, who had the means for living at ease. Sall. Tempus est dicere, it is time to speak. Cic.

NOTE 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes used with prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, there is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

RULE LVII.-Accusative and Infinitive.

534. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Të sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic. Eōs suum adventum exspectăre jussit, he ordered them to await his approach. Caes. Pontem jubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Caes. Të tuā frui virtute cupimus, we wish you to enjoy your virtue. Cic. Sentimus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot (we perceive fire to be hot). Cic. Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself. Liv.

Note.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted, especially in the future;

Audīvī solitum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spērāmus vöbīs profutūros, we hope to benefit you. Cic.

1. The corresponding Passive is sometimes personal and sometimes impersonal:

Personal.—Aristīdēs jūstissimus fuisse trāditur, Aristīdes is said (is reported by tradition) to have been most just. Cic. Sōlem ē mundō tollere videntur, they seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Platōnem audīvisse dīcitur, he is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Diī beātī esse intelleguntur, the gods are understood to be happy. Cic.

IMPERSONAL.—Traditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, it has been reported

¹ Observe that in the first three examples the Accusatives $\ell \hat{e}$, $\ell \hat{e} \hat{e}$, and pontem, are the direct objects of the finite verbs, while in the other examples the Accusatives $\ell \hat{e}$, \bar{e}_{g} -nem, and $r \hat{e} g e m$, may be explained either as the direct objects of the finite verbs, or as the subjects of the Infinitives. The former was doubtless the original construction, but n time the object of the principal verb came to be regarded in many cases as the subject of the Infinitive. Thus was developed the Subject Accusative of the Infinitive.

² These two constructions correspond to the two interpretations of the Active mentioned in foot-note 1 above. Thus, in the sentence, Aristidem jūstissimum fuisse trādunt, if Aristidem is regarded as the object of trādunt, according to the original conception, the corresponding Passive will be personal: Aristidēs jūstissimus fuisse trāditur; but if Aristidem is regarded as the subject of fuisse, and the clause Aristidem jūstissimum fuisse as the object of trādunt, then the same clause will become the subject of the Passive, and the construction will be impersonal: Aristidem jūstissimum fuisse trāditur, 'it is reported by tradition that Aristides was most just.'

by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic. Unam partem Gallos obtinere dictum est, it has been stated that the Gauls occupy one part. Caes. Nuntiatur esse naves in portu, it is announced that the vessels are in port. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Personal Construction is used—(1) regularly in jubeor, vetor, and videor; (2) generally in the simple tenses of most verbs of saying, thinking, and the like, as dicor, trador, feror, nuntior, crédor, existimor, putor, perhibeor, etc.; (3) sometimes in other verbs; see examples above.

NOTE 2.—The Impersonal Construction is especially common in the compound tenses, 1 though also used in the simple tenses; see examples above.

535. The Accusative and an Infinitive are used with a great variety of verbs. Thus—

I. With verbs of Perceiving and Declaring:

Sentimus calere ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Mihi narravit te sollicitum esse, he told me that you were troubled. Cic. Scripserunt Themistoclem in Asiam transisse, they wrots that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.

- 1. Verbs of Perceiving include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: audiō, videō, sentiō, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind—think-ing, believing, knowing: cōgitō, putō, existimō, credō, spērō—intellegō, sciō, etc.
- 2. Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts: dico, narro, nuntio, doceo, ostendo, promitto, etc.
- 3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring, as fāma fert, 'report says,' testis sum, 'I am a witness' = 'I testify,' conscius mihi sum, 'I am conscious,' 'I know,' also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nullam mihi relatam esse gratiam, tu es testis, you are a witness (can testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of perceiving take the Accusative with the present participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Catônem vidi in bibliothèca sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library Cic.

5. Subjects Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platonem ferunt idem sensisse quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. Predicates Compared.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second:

Num putatis, dixisse Antonium minacius quam facturum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.

Note.—But the second clause may take the Subjunctive, with or without ut:

¹ The learner will remember that the simple tenses are formed simply by inflexional endings, as dicitur, dicebātur, but that the compound tenses are formed by the union of the perfect participle with the verb sum, as dictum est, dictum erat, etc.

Audeo dicere ipsos potius cultores agrorum fore quain ut coll prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. With verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites:

Te tua frui virtute cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum necari vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

Note.—Several verbs involving a wish or command admit the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, generally with ut or $n\tilde{e}$; see 498, 1:

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic. Volo ut respondens, I wish you would reply. Cic. Mālō tō hostis metuat, I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic. Concēdo ut hace apta sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.

III. With verbs of Emotion and Feeling:2

Gaudeo të mihi suadëre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Mîramur të laetari, we wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Note.—Verbs of emotion and feeling often take clauses with quod (540, IV.) to give prominence to the fact stated, or to emphasize the ground or reason for the feeling:
Gaudeō quod tc interpellāvi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic.
Dolebam quod socium āmīseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic.

IV. Sometimes, especially in POETRY and in LATE PROSE, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive: 3

Gentem hortor amare focos, I exhort the race to love their homes. Verg. Cuncti suaserunt Italiam petere, all advised to seek Italy. Verg. Soror monet succedere Lauso Turnum, the sister warns Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Verg.

RULE LVIII.—Subject of Infinitive.

536. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Sentīmus calēre īgnem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

² As gaudeo, doleo, miror, queror, etc.; also aegre fero, graviter fero, etc.

¹ Aa cupiō, optō, volŏ, nolō, mālō, etc.; patior, sinō; imperō, jubeō; prohibeō, vetō, etc.

³ Many verbs in Latin thus admit two or more different constructions; see in the dictionary adigō, cēnseō, concēdō, cōgō, cēnstituō, contendō, cupiō, cūrō, dēcernō, dīcō, doceō, ēlabōrō, ēnītor, faciō, impedīo, imperō, jubeō, labōrō, mālo, mando, molior, moneō, nōlō, optō, ŏrō, patior, permitto, persuādeo, postulō, praecipiō, praedīcō, prohibeō, sinō, statuō, studeō, suādeō, vetō, videō. See also Draeger, II., pp. 230-416.

⁴ Remember that the Infinitive, as a verbal noun, originally had no subject, but that subsequently in special constructions a subject Accusative was developed out of the object of the principal verb; see 534. foot-note 1. In classical Latin many Infinitives have no subjects, either expressed or understood.

1. HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.—In lively descriptions the Present Infinitive is sometimes used for the Imperfect or the Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in prima acie versari, omnia providere, multum ipse pugnare, saepe hostem ferire, Catiline was busy in the front line; he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy. Sall.

Note.—The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action: Omnia in pējus ruere āc retrō referri, all things change rapidly for the worse and are borne backward. Verg.

2. A PREDICATE NOUN or a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE after an Infinitive agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rule (362). It is thus—

1) In the Nominative, when predicated of the principal subject:

Nolo esse laudator, I am unwilling to be a eulogist. Cic. Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest, no one can be happy without virtue. Cic. Parens diel potest, he can be called a parent. Cic.

Note. - Participles in the compound tenses agree like predicate adjectives:

Pollicitus esse dicitur, he is said to have promised. Cic.

2) In the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Accusative:

Ego më Phidiam esse mållem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Tråditum est, Homërum caecum fuisse, it has been handed down by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic.

3) In the Dative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patricio tribuno plèbis fieri non licebat, it was not lewful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihi neglegenti esse non licuit, it was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

NOTE.—A noun or adjective predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative is sometimes put in the Accusative:

El consulem fleri licet, it is lawful for him to be made consul. Caes.

537. The Tenses of the Infinitive—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb:

PRESENT.—Cupio me esse elementem, I desire to be mild. Cic. Maluit se dlligt quam metut, he preferred to be loved rather than feared. Nep.

PERFECT.—Platônem ferunt in Îtaliam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Conscius mihi eram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

FUTURE.—Brûtum vîsum îrî â mê puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me.

- 1 Historical Infinitives are generally used in groups, seldom singly.
- ² Here Phidiam is predicated of mē (lit., me to be Phidias), and caecum of Ho mērum.
 - Tribūno is predicated of patricio, and neglegenti of mihi.

Cio. Oraculum datum erat victrices Athenas fore, an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Note.—In general, the Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb, the Perfect as then completed or past, and the Future as then about to take place; but tense is so imperfectly developed in the Infinitive that even relative time is not marked with much exactness. Hence—

1) The *Present* is sometimes used of *future* actions, and sometimes with little or no reference to time:

Cräs argentum dare dixit, he said that he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.
2) The Perfect is sometimes used of present actions, though chiefly in the poets:
Tetigisse timent poëtam, they fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

1. After the past tenses of debeo, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after memini, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Debuit officiosior esse, he ought to have been more attentive. Cic. Id potuit facere, he might have done this. Cic. Me Athenis audire memini, I remember to have heard (hearing) in Athens. Cic.

2. The Perfect Pussive Infinitive sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus, doctus esse may mean either to have been instructed or to be a learned man (lit., an instructed man). If the result thus denoted belongs to past time, fuisse must take the place of esse:

Populum alloquitur, sopitum fuisse regem ictū, she addresses the people, saying that the king was stunned by the blow. Liv. See also 471, 6, note 1.

3. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic Form, futurum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, is frequently used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Non spērāverat Hannibal, fore ut ad sē dēficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

NOTE 1.—This circumlocution is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the participle in rus.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Piuperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in passive and deponent verbs, fore with the perfect participle may be used with the same force:

Dīco mē satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough. Cic.

538. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, is often used as the subject of a verb:

With Subject.—Caesari nuntiatum est equites accèdere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching. Caes. Facinus est vinciri civem Romanum, that a Roman citizen should be bound is a crime. Cic. Certum

¹ This use of the Infinitive as subject was readily developed out of its use as object; see 534, 1, foot-note. Thus the Infinitive, with or without a subject, finally came to be regarded as an indeclinable noun, and was accordingly used not only as subject and object, but also as predicate and appositive (539, I. and II.), and sometimes even in the Ablative Absolute (539, IV.), and in dependence upon prepositions (533, 3, note 4).

est liberos amari, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. Lègem brevem esse oportet, it is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

WITHOUT SUBJECT.—Decretum est non dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal. Liv. Are est difficilis rem publicam regere, to rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Carum esse jucundum est, it is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Hace seire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Peccare licet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Cic.

1. When the subject is an Infinitive, the predicate is either (1) a uoun or adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally: see the examples above.

adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally; see the examples above.

2. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be the subject of another

Intellegī necesse est esse deōs,1 it must be understood that there are gods. Cic.

3. The Infinitive sometimes takes a demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hốc displicet philosophārī, this philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Vīvere ipsum turpe est nöbīs, to live is itself ignoble for us. Cic.

539. Special Constructions.—The Infinitive with a subject ² is sometimes used—

I. As a Predicate; see 362:

Infinitive:

Exitus fuit orationis sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Cacs.

Note.—An Infinitive without a subject may be used as a Predicate Nominative: Vivere est cogitare, to live is to think. Clc.

II. As an Appositive; see 363:

Öraculum datum erat vietrices Athènas fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic. Illud solco mirari, non me accipere tuas litteras, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

III. In Exclamations; see 381:

Te sie vexări, that you should be thus troubled! Cie. Mene incepto desistere victam, that I, vanquished, should abandon my undertaking! 4 Verg.

IV. In the Ablative Absolute; see 431, note I:

Auditō Darium movisse përgit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard), he advanced. Curt.

¹ Esse deos is the subject of intellegi, and intellegi esse deos of est.

² Including the modifiers of each. Thus in the example the whole clause, sibi nūl-tam cum his amīcitiam esse, is used as a Predicate Nominative in agreement with the subject exitus; see 362.

In the examples, the clause victrices Albends fore is in apposition with orderlum, and the clause non me accipere twas litteras, in apposition with illud.

⁴ This use of the infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of the Accusative and Nominative in exciamations (381, with note 3).

II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. In Latin, clauses which are used as *substantives* take one of four forms. They may be—

I. INDIRECT QUESTIONS:

Quaeritur, cur dissentiant, it is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nescio, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic.

Note.—For the use of Indirect Questions, see 529, I.

II. INFINITIVE CLAUSES:

Antecellere contigit, it was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened).

Cic. Magna negotia voluit agere, he wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic.

Note.—For the use of Infinitive Clauses, see 534; 535.

III. Subjunctive Clauses, generally introduced by ut, ne, etc.:

Contigit ut patriam vindicăret, it was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Volo ut mihi respondeas, I wish you would answer me. Cic.

NOTE. - For the use of such Subjunctive Clauses, see 498; 499, 8; 501.

IV. CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY quod:

Beneficium est quod necesse est mori, it is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeō quod të interpellavi, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic.

Note.—Quod-clauses, used substantively, either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a ground or reason. They may be used as the subjects of impersonal verbs, as the objects of transitive verbs, especially of such as denote emotion or feeling, and as appositives: 1

Hūc accēdēbat quod exercitum iuxuriosē habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury. Sail. Adde quod ingenuās didicisse artēs ēmolit morēs, add the fact that to learn liberul arts refines manners. Ovid. Bene facis quod mē adjuvās, you do well that you assist me. Cic. Dolēbam quod socium āmīseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See also 535, III., note.

SECTION VIII.

GERUNDS, GERUNDÍVES,2 SUPINES, AND PARTICIPLES.

I. GERUNDS.

541. The GERUND is a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases, and takes adverbial modifiers:

¹ Quod-clauses occur—(1) as the subject of accēdit, accidit, appāret, ērenit, fit, nocet, obest, occurrit, prōdest, etc.; also of est with a noun or adjective, as causa est, vitium est, etc., grātum est, indīgnum est, mīrum est, etc.; and (2) as dependent upon accūsō, addō, adiceō (p. 20, foot-note 1), admīror, animadvertō, angor, bene facu, delector, doleō, eccūsō, faciō, gaudeō, glōrior, laetor, mīror, mittō, omittō, praetereō, queror, etc. They are sometimes used like the Accusative of Specification. See 516, 1, note.

> 2 The Gerund and the Gerundive were originally identical. The former is the new

Jūs vocandī 1 senātum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Beātē vīvendī 1 cupiditās, the desire of living happily. Cic.

Note.—In a few instances the Gerund has apparently a passive meaning:

Neque habent propriam percipiendi notam, nor have they any proper mark of distinction (i. e., to distinguish them). Cic.

542. The Gerund has four cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—used in general like the same cases of nouns. Thus—

I. The GENITIVE OF THE GERUND is used with nouns and adjectives:

Ars vivendi, the art of living. Cic. Studiosus erat audiendi, he was desirous of hearing. Nep. Cupidus te audiendi, desirous of hearing you. Cic. Artem vera ac falsa dijudicandi, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

Note 1.—The Gerund usually governs the same case as the verb, but sometimes, by virtue of its substantive nature, it governs the Genitive, especially the Genitive of personal pronouns—mel, nostri, tul, vestri, sul:

Côpia plăcandi tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Sui cônservandi causă, for the purpose of preserving themselves. Cic. Vestri adhortandi causă, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv. Reiclendi ³ jūdicum potestăs, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic. Lūcia tuendi côpia, the privilege of beholding the light. Plaut.

Note 2.—The Genitive of the Gerund is sometimes used to denote purpose or tendency:

Lėgės pellendi claros viros, laws for (lit., of) driving away illustrious men. Tac.

II. The Dative of the Gerund is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Cum solvendo non essent, since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua ūtilis est bibendo, water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Note.—The Dative of the Gerund is rare; 4 with an object it occurs only in Plautus.

III. The Accusative of the Gerund is used after a few prepositions:5

Ad discendum propensi sumus, we are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter ludendum, in or during play. Quint.

ter of a participle used substantively, while the latter is that same participle used adjectively. Moreover, from this participle the Gerund developed an active meaning and the Gerundive a passive. On the Origin and Use of Gerunds and Gerundives, see Jolly. Geschichte des Infinitiva, pp. 198-200 Draeger, II., pp. 789-828.

1 Vocandi as a Genitive is governed by jūs, and yet it governs the Accusative senā-tum; vivendi is governed by cupiditūs, and yet it takes the adverbiai modifier beātē.

² The adjectives which take the *Genitive of the Gerund* are chiefly those denoting debier, knowledge, skill, recollection, and their opposites: axidus, cupidus, studiosus; conscius, gnārus, ignārus; peritus, imperitus, insuitus, etc.

³ Pronounced as if written rejiciend; see p. 20, foot-note 1.

⁴ According to Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' p. 200, the Gerund originally had only one case, the Dative, and was virtually an Infinitive.

⁶ Most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and oh; very rarely after ante, oirea, and in.

Note 1.—The Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is rare:

Ad placandum deos pertinet, it tends to appease the gods. Cic.

Note 2 .- The Gerund with ad often denotes purpose:

· Ad imitandum mihi propositum est exemplar illud, that model has been set before me for imitation. Clc.

IV. The Ablative of the Gerund is used (1) as Ablative of Means, and (2) with prepositions: 1

Mens discendo alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Salutem hominibus dando, by giving safety to men. Cic. Virtutes cernuntur in agendo, virtues are seen in action. Cic. Deterrere a scribendo, to deter from writing. Cic.

Note 1.—After prepositions, the Ablative of the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare:

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving erery one his own. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Without a preposition, the Ablative of the Gerund denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incipiendo refugi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

II. GERUNDIVES.

543. The GERUNDIVE, like other participles, agrees with nouns and pronouns:

Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae, plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adjecit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

Note.—A noun (or pronoun) and a Gerundive in agreement with it form the Gerundive Construction.

544. The GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION may be used—

1. In place of a Gerund with a direct object. It then takes the case of the Gerund whose place it supplies:

Libīdō ējus videndī (= libīdō eum videndī), the desire of seeing him (lit., of him to be seen). Cic. Platōnis audiendī (= Platōnem audiendī) studiōsus, fond of hearing Plato. Cic. Legendīs ōrātōribus (= legendō ōrātōrēs), by reading the orators. Cic.

NOTE.—The Gerundive Construction should not be used for the Gerund with a new ter pronoun or adjective as object, as it could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vēra āc falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false Cic.

2. In the Dative and in the Ablative with a preposition:

Locum oppido condendo ceperunt, they selected a place for founding a city Liv. Tempora demetendis fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gath ering fruits. Cic. Brutus in liberanda patria est interfectus, Brutus was slair in liberating his country. Cic.

¹ The Ablative of the Gerund is used most frequently after \tilde{a} (ab), $d\tilde{e}$, $e\alpha$ (ē), in; rarely after eum, $pr\tilde{o}$, and super.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that in the Dative (542, II., note) and in the Ablative with a preposition (542, IV., note !) the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare. The Gerundive Construction supplies its place.

NOTE 2.—The Gerundive Construction sometimes denotes purpose or tendency, especially in the Accusative after verbs of giving, permitting, taking, etc.:

Attribuit İtaliam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Catilinae, he assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage (to be ravaged). Cic. Firmandae valctūdinī in Campāniam concessit, he withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac. Haec trādendae Hannibalī victōriae sunt, these things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitātis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

Note 3.—The Gerundive Construction in the Dative occurs after certain official names, as $decenvir\bar{\imath}, triumvir\bar{\imath}, comitia$:

Decemvirōs lēgibus scrībendīs creāvimus, we have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv.

Note 4.—The Gerundive Construction in the Ablative occurs after comparatives:

Nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessarium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor. Cic.

Note 5.—The Gerundive Construction is in general admissible only in transitive verbs, but it occurs in utor, fruor, fungor, potior, etc., originally transitive:

Ad mūnus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spēs potiundorum castrorum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

III. SUPINES.

545. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in um and a form in ū.

Note 1.—The Supine in um is an Accusative; that in \bar{u} is generally an Ablative, though sometimes perhaps a Dative.²

Note 2.—The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:

Legătos mittunt rogătum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid. Caes.

RULE LIX .- Supine in Um.

546. The Supine in *um* is used with verbs of motion to express purpose:

Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Caes.

1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Filiam Agrippae nüptum dedit, he gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa.

2. The Supine in um with the verb $e\bar{o}$ is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonos omnes perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good. Sall.

¹ But in most instances the Dative may be explained as dependent either upon the verb or upon the predicate as a whole; see 384. 4.

² See Hübschinann, p. 223; Draeger, II., p. 833; Jolly, p. 201.

Note.—But in subordinate clauses the Supine in um with the verb eo is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum îre (= ulcisoi) injūriās festīnat, he hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.

3. The Suplne in um with iri, the Infinitive Passive of $e\bar{o}$, forms, it will be remembered (222, III., 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum vīsum īrī ā mē puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic.

- 4. The Supine in um is not very common; but purpose may be denoted by other constructions:
 - 1) By ut or qui with the Subjunctive; see 497.
 - 2) By Gerunds or Gerundives; see 542, I, note 2, and III, note 2; 544, 2, note 2.

3) By Participles; see 549, 3.

RULE LX.-Supine in ū.

547. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (424):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītū, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? Cic. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. Cic. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death. Cic. Cīvitās incrēdibile memorātū est quantum crēverit, it is incredible to relate how much the state increased. Sall. Pudet dictū, it is a shame to tell. Tac.

Note.—The Supine in \bar{u} never governs an oblique case, but it may take an Ablative with a preposition, as in the third example above.

The Supine in \(\vec{v}\) is used chiefly with fücundus, optimus: facilis, proclivis, difficilis; incredibilis, memorabilis; honestus, turpis; dignus, indignus; f\(\vec{u}\s, u\)ef\(\vec{a}\s, opu\)e, and scelus; rarely with verbs.

2. The Supine in ū is very rare. The most common examples are audītū, dictū, factū, nātū, vīsū; less common, cōgnitū, intellēctū, inventū, memorātū, relātū, scītū tractātū, vīctū.²

IV. Participles.

548. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, the mind, though it does not see itself (lit., not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic.

Note 1. For Participles used substantively, see 441.

Note 2.—Participles used substantively sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belonged to them as participles, and sometimes take adjective modifiers:

Non tam praemia sequi recte factorum quam ipsa recte facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds (things rightly done) so much as good deeds themselves. Cic. Praeclarum atque divinum factum, an excellent and divine deed. Cic.

549. Participles are often used—

1. To denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Snpine in um is found in only two hundred and thirty-six verbs, mostly of the First and Third Conjugations.

² According to Draeger, II., p. 885, the Supine in \bar{u} is found in one hundred and nine verbs.

Plato scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Ituri in proelium canunt, they sing when about to go into battle. Tac. Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Milites renuntiant, se perfidiam veritos revertisse, the soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

2. To denote Condition or Concession:

Mendācī hominī ne vērum quidem dicentī credere non solemus, we are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cic. Relūctante nātūrā, irritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen. Scrīpta tua jam diā exspectāns, non audeo tamen flāgitāre, though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

3. To denote Purpose:

Perseus rediit, belli cāsum tentātūrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attribuit nos trucidandos Cethēgo, he assigned us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cic.

4. To supply the place of RELATIVE CLAUSES:

Omnes aliud agentes, aliud simulantes, improbi sunt, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

5. To supply the place of Principal Clauses:

Clässem devictam cepit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Re consentientes, vocabulis differebant, they agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cic.

Note 1.—A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participlal noun and the preposition without:

Miserum est, nihil pröficientem angi, it is sad to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Non crubescens, without blushing. Cic.

Note 2.—The perfect participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of:

Homerus fuit ante Romam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.

550. The Tenses of the Participle—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, and future relatively to that of the principal verb:

Oculus se non videns alia cernit, the eye, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Plato scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Ūva mātūrāta dulcēscit, the grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic. Sapiens bona semper placitūra laudat, the wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Sen.

NOTE 1.—The perfect participle, both in deponent and in passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Eisdem ducibus usus Numidas mittit, employing the same persons as guides, he sent the Numidians. Caes. Incensus perfert naves, he reports the burning of the ships (the ships set on fire). Verg. See also 544.

Note 2.—In the compound tenses the perfect participle often becomes virtually s

predicate adjective expressing the result of the action:

Causae sunt cognitae, the causes are known. Caes. See also 471, 6, note 1.

Note 3.—For the Perfect Participle with habeo, see 388, 1, note.

NOTE 4.—The want of a perfect active participle is sometimes supplied by a temporal clause, and sometimes by a perfect passive participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Caesar, postquam vēnit, Rhēnum trānsīre constituit, Caesar, having arrived, decided to cross the Rhine. Caes. Equitātū praemisso subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. See also 431; 519.

NOTE 5.—The want of a present passive participle is generally supplied by a temporal clause:

Cum à Catône laudābar, reprehendī mē à cēterīs patiēbar, being praised by Cato, 1 allowed myself to be censured by the others. Cic.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

RULE LXI.-Use of Adverbs.

551. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs:

Sapientës fëliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. Cic. Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud aliter, not otherwise. Verg.

NOTE 1.—For predicate adverbs with sum, see 360, note 2; for adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 441, 3; for adverbs in place of adjectives, see 443, notes 3 and 4; for adverbs with participles used substantively, see 548, note 2.

Note 2.—Sic and ita mean 'so,' 'thus.' Ita has also a limiting sense, 'in so far,' as in $ita-s\bar{\imath}$ (507, 3, note 2). $Ade\bar{\imath}$ means 'to such a degree or result'; tam, tantopere, 'so much'—tam used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

552. The common negative particles are non, ne, haud.

- Nēn is the usual negative; nē is used in probibitions, wishes, and purposes (483, 487), and haud, in haud sciō an, and with adjectives and adverbs: haud mirābile, not wonderful; haud aliter, not otherwise. Nī for nē is rare. Nē nōn after ridē is often best rendered whether.
 In nōn modo nōn and in nōn sōlum nōn the second nōn is generally omitted be-
- fore sed or $v\bar{e}rum$, followed by $n\bar{e}-quidem$ or via (rarely etiam), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentātič non mode amīcē, sed ne liberē quidem dīgna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

8. Minus often has nearly the force of non; sī minus = sī non. Sīn aliter has nearly the same force as sī minus. Minimē often means 'not at all,' 'by no means.'

553. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, let him claim everything. Hor. Neque hốc Zênỗ non vidit, nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nönnēmě, some one; nönnihil, something; nönnūnquam, sometimes; Němě nön, every one; nihil nön, everything; nūnquam nön, always.

2. After a general negative, $n\bar{e}-quidem$ gives emphasis to the negation, and nequs-neque, $n\bar{e}ve-n\bar{e}ve$, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non practereundum est no id quidem, we must not pass by even this. Cic. Nomo unquam neque poota neque orator fuit, no one was ever either a poet or an orator. Cic. Note.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-435.

554. COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS unite similar constructions (309, 1). They comprise five classes.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote UNION:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Senatus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nec erat difficile, nor was it difficult. Liv.

- For list, see 310, 1.
- 2. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and de generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.

Note.—Atque and $\bar{a}c$ generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: $t\bar{a}lis$ $\bar{a}c$ 'such as'; aeque $\bar{a}c$, 'equally as'; aliter atque, 'otherwise than.' See also 451, 5.

- 8. Que is an enclitic, and &c in the best prose is used only before consonants.
- 4. Etiam, quoque, adeō, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, ac, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which is connects: ts quoque, 'he also.' Etiam, 'also,' 'further,' 'even,' often adds a new circumstance.
- 5. Sometimes two copulatives are used: et—et, que—que,¹ et—que, que—et, que—atque,¹ tum—tum, cum—tum, 'both—and'; but cum—tum gives prominence to the second word or clause; non solum (non modo, or no tantum)—sed etiam (vérnm etiam), 'not only—but also'; neque (nec)—neque (nec), 'neither—nor'; neque (nec)—et (que), 'not—but (and)'; et—neque (nec), 'and not.'
- 6. Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: pāw et tranquillitās et concordia, or pāw, tranquillitās, concordia, or pāw, tranquillitās, concordiaque.

Note 1.—Et is often omitted between conditional clauses, except before $n \delta n$.

Note 2.—A series may begin with primum or primi, may be continued by definde followed by tum, posted, praetered, or some similar word, and may close with denique

¹ Que—que is rare, except in poetry; que—atque, rare even in poetry; see Verg. Aen., I., 18; Geor., I., 182.

or postrěmõ, 1 Deinde may be repeated several times between primum and denique or postremõ, 2

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote SEPARATION:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault or his own. Liv. Duabus tribusve horis, in two or three hours. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 2.
- 2. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut verum aut falsum, 'either true or false.' Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective, and is often followed by potius, etiam, or dicam: laudātur, vel etiam amātur, 'he is praised, or even (rather) loved.' It sometimes means even, and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Ve for vel is appended as an enclitic.

Note.—In negative clauses aut and re often continue the negation: $n\tilde{o}n$ honor aut $virt\tilde{u}s$, 'neither (not) honor nor virtue.'

3. Sive (si-ve) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object: Pallas sive Minerva, 'Pallas or Minerva' (another name of the same goddess).

Note.—Disjunctive conjunctions are often combined as correlatives: aut-aut, vo. -vel, etc., 'either-or.'

III. Adversative Conjunctions denote opposition or contrast:

Cupio me esse clementem, sed me inertiae condemno, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic. Magnes ferrum ad se trahit, rationem autem adferre non possumus, the magnet attracts iron, but we can not assign a reason. Cic.

- 1. Fo: list, see 310, 3,
- 2. Sed and vērum mark a direct opposition; autem and vērō only a transition; autemphasizes the opposition; atquī often introduces an objection; cēterum means 'bu' still,' 'as to the rest'; tamen, 'yet.'

Note.—Sed and vērum are sometimes resumptive; see IV., 3, below:

- Sed age, responde, but come : epsy. Plaut.
- 3. Attamen, sedtamen, veruntamen, 'but yet,' are compounds of tamen.
- Autem and vero are postpositive, i.e., they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

IV. ILLATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote INFERENCE:

In umbrā igitur pūgnābimus, we shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 4.
- 2. Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives, as $\epsilon \bar{o}$, $ide\bar{o}$, $ide\bar{c}$, $idere\bar{o}$, $proptere\bar{a}$, quamobrem, $qu\bar{a}propter$, $qu\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{a}r\bar{e}$.
- 8. Igitur generally follows the word which it connects: ħ\(\tilde{\chi}\) igitur, 'this one therefore.' After a digression, igitur, sed, sed tamen, v\(\tilde{\chi}\) rum, v\(\tilde{\chi}\) rum tumen, etc., are often used to resume an Interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered 'I say': Sed \(\tilde{\chi}\) quis, 'if any one, I say.'

¹ For examples, see Cic., Fam., XV., 14; Div., II., 56.

² Cicero, Inv., II., 49, has a series of ten members in which primum introduces the first member, postrēmō the last, and deinde each of the other eight.

V. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Difficile est consilium, sum enim solus, counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cic. Etenim jus amant, for they love the right. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 5,
- 2. Etenim and namque denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
- 3. Enim is postpositive; see 554, III., 4.
- 555. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309, 2). They comprise eight classes.
 - I. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS denote TIME:

Păruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum ego in Siciliă sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. Sce also 311, 1; 518-521.

- 1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, 'not yet'; vixdum, 'scarceiv yet.'
- II. COMPARATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote COMPARISON:

Ut optāstī, ita est, it is as you desired. Cic. Velut sī adesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311, 2; 513, II.

1. CORRELATIVES are often used: Tam-quam, 'as,' 'so—as,' 'as much—as'; tam-quam quad māximē, 'as much as possible'; nën minus—quam, 'not iess than'; nën magis—quam, 'not more than.'

Tum—quam and ut—ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative: ut $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$ —ita $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, 'the more—the more.'

III. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS denote condition:

SI peccavi, Ignosce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nisi est consilium domi. unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311, 3: 506-513.

- Nisi, 'if not,' in negative sentences often means 'except'; and nisi quod, 'except that,' may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean' than.' Nihil aliud nisi = 'nothing further' (more, except); nihil aliud quam = 'nothing else' (other than).
 - IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil habeat, although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311, 4; 514; 515.

V. FINAL CONJUNCTIONS denote PURPOSE:

Esse oportet, ut vivās, it is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 311, 5; 497-499.

VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence of result:

Atticus ita vixit, ut Atheniensibus esset carissimus, Atticus so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Sec also 311, 6; 500-504.

VII. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. See also 311, 7; 516; 517.

VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions or Particles denote inquiry or question:

Quaesieras, nonne putarem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311. 8: 351-353: 529.

- 556. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as theu, 'alas!' and sometimes with certain cases of nouns; see 381, with note 3.
- 557. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections:

Pax (peace), be still! miserum, miserabile, sad, lamentable! oro, pray! age, agite, come, well! mehercules, by Hercules! per deam fidem, in the name of the gods! sodes = sī audes (for audies), if you will hear!

CHAPTER VII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

558. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

I. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in CASE (362):

Brūtus cūstos lībertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty.

II. An Appositive agrees in CASE with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies (363):

Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the king dies.

NOMINATIVE. -- VOCATIVE.

- III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (368): Servius regnavit, Servius reigned.
- IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius.

ACCUSATIVE.

V. The DIRECT OBJECT of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

VI. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and-the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hamilcarem imperatorem fecerunt, they made Hamilcar commander.

VII. Some verbs of ASKING, DEMANDING, TEACHING, and CONCEALING admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing* (374):

Më sententiam rogavit, he asked me my opinion.

VIII. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application (378):

Capita vělámur, we have our heads veiled.

IX. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the Accusative (379):

Septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annos, he reigned thirty-seven years. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five miles.

X. The Place to which is designated by the Accusative (380):

I. Generally with a preposition-ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu me miserum, ah me unhappy!

DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used (384)—

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Tibi servio, I am devoted to you.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agros plebi dedit, he gave lands to the common people.

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object of end for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malo est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp.

XIV. With adjectives, the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus carum est, it is dear to all.

XV. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs (392):

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperatio legibus, justice is obedience to laws.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter naturae vivere, to live in accordance with nature.

GENITIVE.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395):

Catonis orationes, Cato's orations.

XVII. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise.

XVIII. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (401):

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy.

XIX. The Genitive is used (406)—

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserère laborum, pity the labors.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past.

III. With refert and interest:

Interest omnium, it is the interest of all.

XX. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs (409):

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Të amīcitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men of crime.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eörum nös miseret, we pity them.

ABLATIVE PROPER.

XXI. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative (412):

I. Generally with a preposition-ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS without a preposition:

Platonem Athenis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens.

XXII. Separation. Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition (413):

Caedem à vöbis dépello, I ward off slaughter from you. Hốc audivi de parente meo, I heard this from my father. Ars útilitäte laudatur, an art is praised because of its usefulness.

XXIII. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue.

INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

XXIV. The Ablative is used (419)-

I. To denote ACCOMPANIMENT. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vivit eum Balbo, he lives with Balbus.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Summă virtute adulescens, a youth of the highest virtue.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum virtûte vîxit, he lived virtuously.

XXV. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative (420): Cornibus tauri se tutantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.

XXVI. The Ablative is used (421)-

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rebus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, caseo, melle, the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey.

III. With dignus, indignus, and contentus:

Digni sunt amicitia, they are worthy of friendship.

XXVII. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative (422):

Vendidit auro patriam, he sold his country for gold.

XXVIII. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (423):

Uno die longiorem mensem faciunt, they make the month one day longer.

XXIX. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application (424):

Nomine, non potestate, fuit rex, he was king in name, not in power.

LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

XXX. The Place in which is denoted (425)-

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in :

Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS by the Locative, if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:

Romae fuit, he was at Rome.

XXXI. The TIME of an action is denoted by the Ablative (429):

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year.

XXXII. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance (431):

Servio regnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

XXXIII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions (432):

Ad amicum, to a friend. In Italia, in Italy.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

XXXIV. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE (438):

Fortuna caeca est, fortune is blind.

XXXV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON (445):

Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood.

XXXVI. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON (460):

Ego rēgēs ējēcī, I have banished kings.

Use of the Indicative.

XXXVII. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):

Deus mundum aedificăvit, God made (built) the world.

Moods and Tenses in Principal Clauses.

XXXVIII. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED (483):

Valeant cives, may the citizens be well.

XXXIX. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE (485):

Hic quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire.

XL. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and BNTREATIES (487):

Justitiam cole, practice justice.

Moods and Tenses in Subordinate Clauses.

XLI. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical (491):

Enititur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.

XLII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose (497)-

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missi sunt qui (= ut ii) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

II. With ut, ne, quo, quominus:

Enititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.

XLIII. The Subjunctive is used to denote RESULT (500)-

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, car, etc.:

Non is sum qui (= ut ego) his utar, I am not such a one as to use these things.

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vixit ut Atheniensibus esset carissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians.

XLIV. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take (507)-

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

SI spīritum ducit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperpect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Pluribus verbis ad te scriberem, si res verba desideraret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words.

XLV. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive (513)—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum ne, modo ne, dummodo ne, 'if only not,' 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habèbō, ac sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as it (i. c., as \mathbf{I} should if) you had written.

XLVI. Concessive clauses take (515)-

I. Generally the Indicative in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand.

II. The Indicative or Subjunctive when introduced by etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, or si, like conditional clauses with si:

Etsī nihil scið quod gaudeam, though I know no reason why I should rejoice.

III. The Subjunctive when introduced by ticet, quamvis, ut, nē, cum, or the relative qui:

Licet irrideat, though he may deride.

XLVII. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take (516)—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively on one's own authority: Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventûtem, Socrates was accused, because he corrupted the youth.

XLVIII. Causal clauses with *cum* and *qui* generally take the Subjunctive in writers of the best period (517):

Cum vīta metus plēna sit, since life is full of fear.

XLIX. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubĭ, ut, sumul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used (518):

Postquam vidit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc.

L. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the Indicative (519):

Haec feci, dum licuit, I did this while it was allowed.

II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—

1. The Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Delīberā hoc, dum ego redeo, consider this until I return.

2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Different, dum defervescat ira, let them defer it till their anger cools.

- LI. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam (520)-
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and Pluperfect is put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something defired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, before I (can) speak of the republic.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

Antequam urbeni caperent, before they took the city.

- LII. In temporal clauses with cum (521)-
- 1. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the INDICATIVE:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

- II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Păruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicarem, while I was folding the letter.

- LIII. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive or Subjunctive as follows (523):
 - I. When DECLARATIVE, they take the Infinitive with a Subject Accusative: Dicēbat animos case dīvīnos, he was wont to say that souls are divine.
 - II. When Interrogative, they take-
 - 1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulāta Caesaris respondit, quid sibī vellet, cūr venīret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come?

2. Sometimes the Infinitive with a Subject Accusative, as in rhetorical questions:

Docebant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levius, they showed that the fact was a proof, etc.; what was more inconsiderate?

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scribit Labieno cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to some (that he should come) with a legion.

LIV. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE, on becoming INDIRECT, take the Subjunctive (524):

Respondit se id quod in Nerviis fecisset facturum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

LV. The Subjunctive is used (529)—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cur doctissimi hominės dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indignius est quam eum qui culpă careat supplicio non carere, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment.

Infinitive.

LVI. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (533):

Haec vītāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things.

LVII. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (534):

Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise.

LVIII. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (536):

Platonem Tarentum vēnisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum.

SUPINE.

LIX. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express PURPOSE (546):

Legăti venerunt res repetitum, deputies came to demand restitution.

LX. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (517):

Quid est tam jucundum audītu, what is so agresable to hear (in hearing)?

ADVERBS.

LXI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (551):

Sapientes feliciter vivunt, the wise live happily

CHAPTER VIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

559. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis, and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

I. ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

General Rules.

560. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic. Animus aeger semper errat, a diseased mind always errs. Cic. Miltiades Athenas liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

561. EMPHASIS and EUPHONY affect the arrangement of words.

I. Any word, except the subject, may be made *emphatic* by being placed at the BEGINNING of the sentence:

Silent lègès inter arma, laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitôri Remus déditur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the END of the sentence:

Nobis non satisfacit ipse Demosthenes, even Demosthenes does not satisfy we. Cic. Consulatum petivit nunguam, he never sought the consulship. Cic.

III. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its Genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by SEPARATION:

Objūrgātiones nonnunquam incidunt necessāriae, sometimes necessary RE-PROOFS occur. Cic. Jūstitiae fungātur officits, let him discharge the duties of fustice. Cic.

Note,—A word may be made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense :

Mågna adhibita cura est, great care has been taken. Cic.

562. CHIASMUS, —When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

563. KINDRED WORDS.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectute scripsi, I, an old man, wrote to an old man m the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se aliis alii prosunt, they benefit each ther. Cic.

- 564. A word which has a COMMON RELATION to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed—
 - I. Generally before or after both:

Pacis et artes et gloria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli pacisque artes, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

Note.—A Genitive or an adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Haec percunctătio ac denuntiatio belli, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv-

II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Honoris certamen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agri omnes et maria, all lands and seas. Cic.

Special Rules.

565. The Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Populus Romanus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Herodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. Liber de officis, the book on duties. Cic.

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, are placed before their nouns:

Tuscus ager Rômānō adjacet the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv.

2. When a noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, the usual order is, Adjective—Genitive—noun:

Māgna civium pēnūria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

3. An adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition:

Magno cum pericuio esse, to be attended with great peril. Cic.

4. In the poets an adjective is often separated from its noun by the modifier of another aoua:

Taspērāta tuae veniet plūma superbiae, the unexpected down shall come upon your pride. Hor.

566. The Modifiers of an Adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:

Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Omni aetati communis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise Cic.

567. The Modifiers of a Verb generally precede it:

Glöria virtûtem sequitur, glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deŏ pāret, the world is subject to God. Cic. Vehementer dīxit, he spoke vehemently. Cic.

- 1. When the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow; see the first example under 561, I.
- 2. An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (561):

Facillimē cognoscuntur adulescentes, most easily are the young men recognized. Cic.

8. Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Mors propter brevitütem vitae nünquam longë abest, death is never far distant, in consequence of the shortness of life. Cic.

568. The Modifiers of an Adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehementer dixit, he spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter naturae vivit, he lives agreeably to nature. Cic.

- 569. Special Words.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus—
 - I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Castos hujus urbis, the quardian of this city. Cic.

1. Ille in the sense of well-known (450, 4) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:

Mēdēa Illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

- 2. Pronouns are often brought together, especially quisque with suns or sui:
- Jüstitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man hio due (bis own). Clc. Qui sõsõ student praestāre, etc., voho are eager to excel, etc. Sall
- II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

 The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Res qua de agitur, the subject of which we are treating. Clc. Italiam contra, over against Italy. Verg. Corpus in Acacidae, into the body of Acacides. Verg.

2. For cum appended to an Ablative, see 184, 6; 187, 2.

3. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Accusative of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb $ir\bar{v}$ is omitted:

Post Alexandri māgni mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Clc. Ad bene vivendum, for living well. Clc. Per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, I implore you by these tears. Verg. Per ego vōs deōs (= per deōs ego vōs ōrō), I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērē, and generally igitur, follow some other word:

Sī peccāvi, īgnôsce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Iī qui superiores

sunt, those who are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia videbat, but he homself saw all things. Cic.

 A conjunction may follow a relative or an emphatic word, and a relative may follow an emphatic word;

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae cum it sint, since these things are so. Cic. Trojae qui primus ab oris venit, who came first from the shores of Troy. Verg.

Note.—Certain conjunctions, as et, nec, sed, and even aut and rel, are more frequentiremoved from the beginning of the clause in poetry than in prose:

Compressus et omnis impetus, and all violence was checked. Verg.

2. Ne-quidem takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

Në in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

8. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, from me indeed he will hear nothing. Cic.

4. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In foroque, and in the forum. Cic. Inter nosque, and among us. Cic.

IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Hac villa carere non possunt, they are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Juppiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic. Fas non putant, they do not think it right. Cic. Pecunia soluta non est, the money has not been paid. Cic.

 In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Negat quemquam posse, he denies that any one is able. Clc. Nihil est melius, nothing is better. Clc.

V. Inquam, sometimes āiō, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brutus, quod dicam, nothing which I shall state, said Brutus. Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius. Cic.

II. ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

570. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (554) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Verg. Gỹgès à nullo videbatur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

571. A clause used as the Subject of a complex sentence (348) generally stands at the *beginning* of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the end:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

- 1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 560.
- 2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses as upon the arrangement of words; see 561.
- 572. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of complex sentences admit three different arrangements:
- I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Hostes, ubi primum nostros equites conspexerunt, celeriter nostros perturbaverunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout. Caes. Sententia, quae tutissima videbatur, vicit, the opinion which seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause. Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with $is-qu\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}tis-qu\bar{\imath}tis$, tantus-quantus, tum-cum, tia-ut, etc., the relative member, i. e., the clause with $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}tis$, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of *Purpose* and *Result* generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

573. LATIN PERIODS.—A complex sentence in which two or more subordinate clauses are inserted within the principal clause is called a Period in the strict sense of the term.

Note 1.—The examples given under 572, I., are short and simple examples of Latin Periods.

Note 2.—Many Latin periods consist of several carefully constructed clauses so united as to form one complete harmonious whole. For examples, see Cleero's Third Oration against Catiline, XII., 'Sed quoniam . . . providere'; also Livy, I., 6, 'Numitor, interprimum . . . ostendik.'

Note 3.—In a freer sense the term *Period* is sometimes applied to all complex sentences which end with principal clauses. In this sense the examples given under 572. If, are *Periods*. Many carefully elaborated Latin sentences are constructed in this way; see Cleero's Oration for the Poet Archias, I., 'Quod si hace . . . debëmus'; also the First Oration against Catiline, XIII., 'Ut saepe hominës . . . ingravëscet.'

PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

574. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

CHAPTER I.

QUANTITY.

575. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity.\(^1\) Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common.\(^2\)

I. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

576. A syllable is Long in Quantity—

I. If it contains a DIPHTHONG or a LONG VOWEL, or is the result of CONTRACTION:

haec, foedus; dūcō; cōgō (for coigō), occidō (for cceaedō), nil (for nihil).

1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacūtus.

II. If its vowel is followed by X or Z, or any Two Consonants except a mute and a liquid:

mājor, dux, servus, sunt, regunt, rēgnum, āgmen.

 But one or both of the consonants must belong to the same word as the vowel: ab⁴ sēde, per⁴ saxa.

NOTE 1.—II has no tendency in combination with any consonant to lengthen a preceding syllable. Hence in such words as Achaeus, Athēnae, the first syllable is short.

Note 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in * remained short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes also short final syllables ending in other consonants: imāginis formam, enim vērō, erat dictō,5

¹ In many cases the quantity of syllables may be best learned from the Dictionary, but in others the student may be greatly aided by certain general statements or rules.

² That is, sometimes long and sometimes short.

³ Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by position if the vowel is short. For the quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 651.

⁴ Here ab becomes long before s in sede, and per before s in sava.

⁶ Here the syllables is, im, and at remain short.

NOTE 3.—In the early poets many syllables long by position in the Augustan poets are sometimes short, as the first syllable of ecce, ergō, ille, inter, omnis, unde, uxor.

NOTE 4.—A final syllable ending in a vowel is occasionally, though rarely, lengthened by consonants at the beginning of the following word.

Note 5.—In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnus, Tecmessa.

- 2. A syllable before j is long, except in bijugus, is, quadrijugus, is: see 16, N. 2.
- 577. A syllable is Short in Quantity if its vowel is followed in the same word by another Vowel, by a Diphthong, or by the aspirate H:

dies, doceo, viae, nihil.

- I. The following vowels, with the syllables which contain them, are long by Exception:
- 1. **A**—(1) in the Genitive ending $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ of Dec. I.: $aul\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{a}ius$; $G\bar{a}ius$ (G $\bar{a}jus$); (3) before ia, ie, io, iu, in the verb $\bar{a}i\bar{o}$.
- 2. **E**—(1) in the ending $\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$ of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: $di\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; and sometimes when preceded by a consonant: $fid\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, $r\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; often in the Dative Singular of the pronoun is: $\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{e}ius$: $Pomp\bar{e}ius$; (3) in $\bar{e}heu$, and in $Rh\bar{e}a$.
- 3. **I**—(1) in the verb $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$, when not followed by $er: f\bar{\imath}am$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}bam$, but $fier\bar{\imath}$; (2) in $d\bar{\imath}us$, a, um (for $d\bar{\imath}vus$, a, um); (3) generally in the Genitive ending $\bar{\imath}us$: $al\bar{\imath}us$, $ill\bar{\imath}us$; (4) sometimes in $D\bar{\imath}ana$.
 - 4. O-sometimes in ŏhē.
- 5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: āēr, Aenēās, Brīsēis, Menelāus, Trões.

Note.—This often occurs in proper names in éa, îa, éus, îus, âôn, îôn, âis, ôis, ôius: Médéa, Alexandria, Pênéus, Dărius, Oriôn.

578. A syllable is Common in Quantity if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid:

ager, agrī; pater, patris; duplex, triplex.

Note 1.—A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: $ab\text{-}rump\delta$, $ob\text{-}rog\delta$.

NOTE 2.—In Plautus and Tereneo a syllable with a short vowel before a mute and a liquid is short.

II. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

579. Monosyllables are long:

å, då, të, së, dë, si, qui, dö, pro, tu, dos, pës, sis, bos, sus, par, sol.

 $^{^1}$ The name of the daughter of Numitor, and of a priestess in Vergil. In Rheā, another name for Cyhelē, the e is short.

² Sometimes fieri in Plautus and Terence.

- I. The following are short by EXCEPTION:
- 1. Enclitics : que, ve, ne, ce, te, pse, pte.
- 2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ab, ad, fel, sum, et; except sal, sol.
- 3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, qua (indefinite), quis, vir, vas (vadis), and sometimes his and his in the Nominative and Accusative.
 - 580. In words of more than one syllable-
- I. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short:

marī, audī, servō, omnīnō, frūctū, cornū; via, marla, mare, misy.

II. Final syllables in c are long; in d, l, m, n, r, t, short: alec, illuc; illud, cousul, amen, carmen, amor, caput.

NOTE 1.—Donec and lien are exceptions.

Note 2.—Final syllables in n and r are long in many Greek words which end long in the original: as Titan, Anchisen, Hymen, Delphin, der, uether, crater.

III. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

amās, mēnsās, monēs, nūbēs, servos; avis, urbis, bonus, chlamys.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that short final syllables like is, us, etc., may be lengthened by being placed before a word beginning with a consonant; see 576, II.

Note 2.—Plantus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings \bar{a} , \bar{e} , $\bar{a}l$, $\bar{a}r$, $\bar{o}r$, $\bar{i}s$, $\bar{u}s$, $\bar{a}t$, $\bar{e}t$, $\bar{u}t$, often stand in place of the later endings a, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it(21). Some of these early forms are retained by Terence, and some of them occasionally occur in the Augustan poets.

Note 3. - Plantus and Terence, in consequence of the colloquial character of comedy, often shorten unaccented final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, abi, dedi, domi, domo, viro, pedes.

Note 4.—In Plantus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not usually affect the quantity of the syllable: *ll* in *ille*, *mm* in *immō*, *pp* in *opportūnē*.

- 581. Numerous exceptions to the general rule for the quantity of final syllables occur even in classical Latin:
 - I. I final, usually long. is sometimes short or common—
- SHORT in nisi, quasi, cai (when a dissyllable), and in the Greek ending si of the Dative and Ablative Plural.
- COMMON in mihī, tibī, sibī, ibī, ubī, and in the Dative and Vocative Singular of some Greek words.
 - II. O final, usually LONG, is short-
- 1. In duo, ego, octo, cho, in the adverbs cito, ilico, modo, and its compounds, dummodo, quomodo, etc., in cedo, and in the old form endo.

U is short in indu and u and u and u contracted syllables are long, according to 576, I.

- 2. Sometimes (1) in nouns of Dec. III. and (2) in verbs, though very rarely in the best poets.
 - III. A final, usually short, is LONG-
 - 1. In the Ablative: mēnsā, bonā, illā,
 - 2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in as: Aenēa, Palla.1
- 3. In Verbs and Particles: amā, cūrā; circā, juxtā, anteā, frūstrā. Except ita, quia, ēja, hēja, and puta used udverbially.
 - IV. E final, usually short, is LONG-
- 1. In Dec. I. and V., and in Greek plurals of Dec. III.: epitomē; rē, diē; tempē, melē.
 - 2. Generally in the Dative ending & of Dec. III.: aere = aeri.
- 3. In the Singular Imperative Active of Conj. II.: monē, docē. But e is sometimes short in cavē, vidē, etc.²
- 4. In fere, ferme, one, and in adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: docte, recte. Except bene, male, inferne, interne, superne.
 - V. As final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
 - 1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Arcas, lampas.
 - 2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III.: Arcadas, heroas.
 - VI. Es final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
- 1. In Nomi stives Singular of Dec. III. with short increment (582) in the Genitive: miles (itis), obses (idis), interpres (etis). Except abies, aries, paries, Ceres, and compounds of pes, as bipes, tripes, etc.
 - 2. In penes and the compounds of es, as ades, potes.
- 3. In Greek words—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Genitive: Arcades, Trōades; (2) in a few neuters in es: Hippomenes; (3) in a few Vocatives Singular: Dēmosthenes.
 - VII. Os final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
 - 1. In compos, impos, eros.
 - 2. In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delos, melos.
 - VIII. Is final, usually short, is LONG-
 - 1. In plural cases: mēnsīs, servīs, rōbīs. Hence forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.
- 2. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: Quirk (itis), Salamis (inis).
 - 3. In the Singular Present Indic. Act. of Conj. IV.: audis.

Note.—Mūvis, quivis, utervis, follow the quantity of ris.

- 4. In the Singular Present Subj. Act.: possis, velis, nolis, malis.
- 1 Sometimes in the Vocative of Greek nouns in as and ès.
- ² Hence, in the compounds, hodie, pridie, postridie, quare
- In the comic poets many dissyllable Imperatives with a short penult shorten the uttimate; as habe, jube, mane, move, tace, tene, etc.

- 5. Sometimes in the Singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīs, docuerīs.
 - IX. Us final, usually short, is LONG-
- 1. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: virtūs (ūtis), tellūs (ūris).

Note.—But palus (u short) occurs in Horace, Ars Poetica, 65.

- 2. In Dec. IV., in the Genitive Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural: frūctūs.
 - 3. In Greek words ending long in the original: Panthūs, Sapphūs, tripūs.

 Notz.—But we have Oedipus and põlypus.

III. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

- 582. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative Singular, and to have as many *increments of declension* as it has additional syllables: sermŏ, sermōnis, sermōnibus.
- 583. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many *increments of conjugation* as it has additional syllables: amās, amātis, amābātis.²
- 584. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the *first* increment, and those following this are called successively the *second*, third, and fourth increments.

Increments of Declension.

585. In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e. i. u. and y. short:

aetās, aetātis, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerī, puerōrum; fulgur, fulguris; ehlamys, chlamydis; bonus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; miser, miserī; supplex, supplicis; satur, saturī.

I. A, usually Long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment—5

¹ Sermönis, having one syllable more than sermö, has one increment, while sermônibus has two increments.

² Amātis has one increment, amābātis two.

³ In $ser-m\tilde{o}n$. i-2-bus, the first increment is $m\tilde{o}n$, the second i; and in $mon-u-e-r\tilde{u}-mus$, the first is u, the second e, the third $r\tilde{u}$.

Y occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in yn and of a few others.

⁶ Observe that the exceptions belong to the first increment.

- 1. Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Cuesaris.
- 2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis; biems, hiemis.
 - 3. Of Greek nouns in a and as : poēma, poēmatis; Pallas, Palladis.
- 4. Of (1) baccar, hēpar, jubar, lār, nectar, pār, and its empounds; (2) anas, mās, vas (vadis); (3) sāl, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.
- II. O, usually Long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment— 1
- 1. Of Neuters in Declension III.: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except õs (ŏris), ador (adŏris), and comparatives.
- Of words in s preceded by a consonant: inops, inopis. Except Cyclops and hydrops.
- 3. Of arbor, bos, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor; Allobrox, Cuppadox, praecox.
 - 4. Of most Patrials : Macedo, Macedonis.
- 5. Of many Greek nouns—(1) those in $\bar{o}r: rh\bar{e}t\bar{o}r$, $Hect\bar{o}r$; (2) many in \bar{o} and $\bar{o}n$ increasing short in Greek: $a\bar{e}d\bar{o}n$, $a\bar{e}donis$; (3) in Greek compounds in $p\bar{u}s$ or $pus: trip\bar{u}s$ (odis), Oedipus.
- . III. E, usually short in the increments of declension, is LONG in the first increment-
- Of Declension V.: dieī, dierum, diebus, rebus. But in the Genitive and Dative Singular sometimes short after a consonant: fidēī, spēī.
- 2. Of nouns in èn, mostly Greek tièn, lienis; Sirèn, Sirènis. So Aniò, Aniènis.
- Of Celtiber, Ther, ver, heres, locuples, merces, quies, ir quies, requies, plebs, lex, rex, alec, alex, vervex.
- 4. Of a few Greek words in ès and èr: lebès, lebètis; crâtèr, crâtèris. Except åèr and aethèr.
- IV. I, usually short in the increments of declension, is tong in the first increment—
 - 1. Of most words in ix: rādix, rādicis; fēlix, fēlicis.2
 - 2. Of dis, glis, lis, vis, Quiris, Samnis.
 - 3. Of delphin, and a few rare Greek words.

Note.-For quantity of i in the ending fus, see 577, 8.

- V. U, usually snorr in the increments of declension, is Long in the first increment-
- 1. Of nouns in ūs with the Genitive in ūris, ūtis, ūdis: jūs, jūris; salūs. salūtis; palūs, palūdis.
 - 2. Of für, früx, lüx, plüs, Pollüx.

¹ See p. 342, foot-note 5.

² But short in appendix, calix, Cilix, filix, fornix, niw, pix, salix, stric. and a few others, chiefly proper names.

³ But short in intercus, Ligus, pecus.

Increments of Conjugation.

586. In the Increments of Conjugation (583), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

amāmus, amēmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus.

Note 1.—In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs, ferò, volò, and their compounds, the full form of the second person, feris, volis, etc., must be used. Thus in ferèbam and rolèbam, the increments are rè and lè.

Note 2.—in ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (255, 1.), the reduplication is not counted. Thus dedimus has but one increment, di.

- I. A, usually Long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of do: dare, dabam, circumdabam.
 - II. E, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short before r—
- 1. In the tenses in ram, rim, ro: amāveram, amāverim, amāvero; rexerat, rexerit.
- 2. In the first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conjugation III.: regere, regeris, regerem, regerer.
 - 3. In the Future ending beris, bere: amāberis or -ere, monēberis.
- 4. Rarely in the Perfect ending erunt: steterunt for steterunt; see 236, note; also Systole, 608, VI.
- III. I, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is LONG, except before a vowel—
- 1. In the first increment of Conjugation IV., except imus of the Perfect: audire, audivi, auditum; sentire, sentimus; sensimus (Perfect).
- 2. In Conjugation III., in the first increment of Perfects and Supines in ivi and itum (278), and of the parts derived from them (except imus of the Perfect: trivimus): cupivi, cupiverat, cupitus; petivi, petitus; captesivi, captesiturus. Gāvisus from gaudeo follows the same analogy.
- 3. In the endings imus and itis of the Present Subjunctive: simus, sitis; velimus, velitis (240, 3).
- 4. In nolite, nolito, nolitote, and in the different persons of ibam, ibo, from eo (295).
- Sometimes in the endings rimus and ritis of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amaverimus, amaveritis.
- IV. U, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.

IV. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

- 587. The most important derivative endings may be classified according to quantity as follows:
 - I. Derivative endings with a Long Penult:
 - 1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum:
 flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

2. ědő, Idő, ūdő; agő, Igő, ūgő:

dulcēdo, cupīdo, solitūdo; vorago, orīgo, aerūgo.

3. āis, ēis, ōis, ōtis, īnē, ōnē—in patronymics:1

Ptolemāis, Chrysēis, Mīnois, Īcariotis, Nērīnē, Acrisionē

4. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis:

querēla, ovīle; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.

5. ānus, ēnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna:

urbānus, egēnus, patronus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annona, lacūna.

6. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, Ivus:

salūtāris, avārus; canorus, animosus; octāvus, aestīvus.

7. ātus, ētus, Itus, ōtus, ūtus; ātim, Itim, ūtim; ētum, ēta:2

ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus; singulātim, virītim, tribūtim; quercētum, monēta.

8. ēnī, īnī, ōnī—in distributives:

septēnī, quinī, octonī.

II. Derivative endings with a SHORT PENULT-

adēs, iadēs, idēs—in patronymics ³
 Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs.

2. iacus, icus, idus:4

Corinthiacus, modicus, cupidus.

3. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum—in diminutives:

filiolus, filiola, atriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; fiōsculus, particula, mūnusculum.

4. etās, itās—in nouns; iter, itus—in adverbs:

pietās, vēritās; fortiter, dīvīnitus.

5. ātilis, ilis, bilis—in verbals; inus—in adjectives denoting material or time: 5

versātilis, docilis, amābilis; adamantinus, cedrinus, crāstinus, diūtinus.

Note 1.—Ilis in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cirilis, hostilis, puerilis, virilis.

Note 2.—Inus denoting characteristic (330) usually has the penuit long: caninus.

¹ Except Danais, Phôcais, Thébais, Nirèis.

² Except (1) anhēlitus, fortuītus, grātutus, hālitus, hospitus, spīritus; (2) adfatim, statim, and adverbs in itus, as divīnitus; and (3) participles provided for by 586.

[•] Except (1) those in ides from nouns in eus and es: as, Pélides (Péleus), Neo-Maës (Neoclés); and (2) Amphiarâidés, Amyelidés, Bélidés, Coronidés, Lycûrgidés.

⁴ Except amicus, anticus, apricus, mendicus, posticus, pudicus.

[·] Except matatinus, repentinus, respertinus.

- III. Derivative endings with a LONG ANTEPENULT.
- āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius: rosāceus, pannūceus, subitāneus, cibārius, columbārium, cēnsōrius.
- 2. ābundus, ācundus; ābilis, ātilis, āticus: mīrābundus, īrācundus; amābilis, versātilis, aquāticus.
- 3. āgintā, īgintī, ēsimus—in numerals:

nonāgintā, vīgintī, centēsimus.

4. imonia, imonium; torius, sorius; toria, torium: querimonia, alimonium; amatorius, censorius; victoria, auditorium.

IV. Derivative endings with a SHORT ANTEPENULT:

 ibilis, itūdŏ, olentus, ulentus: crēdibilis, sōlitūdŏ, vīnolentus, opulentus.

2. uriō—in desideratives: ēsuriō, ēmpturiō, parturiō.

V. QUANTITY OF STEM-SYLLABLES.

588. All simple verbs in $i\bar{o}$ of the Third Conjugation (217) have the stem-syllable ¹ short:

capio, cupio, facio, fodio, fugio.

589. Most verbs which form the Perfect in $u\bar{\imath}$ have the stemsyllable short:

domō, secō habeō, moneō, alō, colō.

Note.—Pōnī, dēbeō, flōreō, pāreō, and several inceptive verbs, are exceptions.

590. Dissyllable Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position:

juvē, jūvī, jūtum; foveē, fēvī, fētum.

1. Eight Ferfects and ten Supines have the first syllable short:

bibī, dedī, fidi, liquī,² scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratura, vutum, satum, situm, statum.²

591. Trisy!labic Reduplicated Perfects have the first two syllables short:

cado, cecidí; cano, ceciní; disco, didicí.

Note 1.— $Caed\hat{o}$ has $cec\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$ in distinction from $cecid\bar{\imath}$ from $cad\bar{o}$.

Note 2.—The second syllable may be made long by position : cucurri, momordi.

592. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem-syllables unchanged: ²

¹ That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

² Liqui from liqueo; linquo has liqui. Statum from sisto; sto has statum.

But see Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines, 590.

avīs, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levior, levissimus; moneō, monēbam monuī.

Note 1.—Position may, however, affect the quantity: ager, agrī; possum, potul; solvō, solūtum; volvō, volūtum.

NOTE 2.—Gigno gives genui, genitum, and pono, posui, positum.

593. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem-sylables of their primitives:

bonus, bonitās; timeo, timor; animus, animosus; cīvis, cīvicus; cūra, cūro.

1. Words formed from the same root sometimes show a variation in the quantity of stem-syllables:

dico,	dīco,	personő, regő, secus, sedeő, serő, sopor, suspicor, tegő,	persona,
dux, ducis,	dūco,		rēx, rēgis, rēgula,
fides,	fīdo,		sētius,
homo,	hūmānus,		sēdēs, sēdulus,
lateo,	lāterna,		sēmen,
lego,	lēx, lēgis,		sōpio,
macer,	mācero,		suspicio,
moveo,	mobilis,		tēgula,
nota,	nōtum,	vadum,	vādō
odium,	ōdī,		vōx, vōcis.

Note 1.—This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction, as movibilis, moibilis, mobilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography, as the verbs legis, legės, regis, regės, sedės, from the nouns lėgis, lėgės, rėgis, rėgės, sėdės, or the verbs dūcis, dūcės, fidės, from the nouns ducis, ducės, fldės.

NOTE 2.—A few derivatives shorten the long vowel of the primitive: ācer, acerbus; 'āceō, lucerna; môles, molestus.

- 594. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements: ante-fero, de-fero, de-duco, in-aequalis, pro-duco.
- 1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity: dē-ligō (legō), oc-cidō (cadō), oc-cidō (caedō).
- 2. The Inseparable Prepositions $d\tilde{\imath}$, $s\tilde{e}$, and $v\tilde{e}$ are long, re short; ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

diduco, seduco, vecors, reduco; nedum, nefas:

Note 1.-Di is short in dirimo and disertus.

Nore 2.—Në is iong in nëdum, nëmő, nëquam, nëquāquam, nëquāquam, nëquitia, and nëve. In other words it is short.

Note 3.—Re la sometimes lengthened in a few words: rěligiö, rěliquiae, rèperit řpulit, rètulit, etc.

- 3. In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus Jūrō gives -jerō; nōtus, -nitus; nūbō, -nubu: dē-jerō, cōg-nitus, prō-nuba.
- 4. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeucūtus, prae-ūstus.
 - 5. Pro is short in the following words:

¹ Here the first syllable is short in ager, but common in ager (578); long in pos sum, volvo, volvo (576, 11.), but short in potul, solutum, and volutum.

procella, procul, profānus, profūrī, profecto, profestus, proficiscor, profiteor, profugio, profugus, profundus, pronepōs, proneptis, protervus, and in most Greek words, as prophēta; generally also in profundo, propāgo, propāgo, propēnā, rarely in procuro, propello.

6. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with facio or fio, e is generally short:

calefacio, calefio, labefacio, patefacio.

- I is usually long in the first part of the compounds of dies: meridies, pridie, postridie, cotidie, triduum.
- 8. O is long in contrō-, intrō-, retrō-, and quandō- in composition: contrōversia, intrōdūcō, retrōvertō, quandōque; but quandōquidem.
- 9. The quantity of the final i in ibl, ubl, and utl is often changed in composition:

ibīdėm, ibīque; ubīque, ubīnam, ubivīs, ubīcunque, necubi, sīcubi; utinam, utique, sīcuti.

10. Hodie, quasi, quoque, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

595. The Quantity of Stem-Syllables in cases not provided for by any rules now given will be best learned from the Dictionary. By far the larger number of such syllables will be found to be short. For convenience of reference, a list of the most important primitives with long stem-syllables is added:

ācer	c ēlō	dēleŏ	f ortūna	lēnis
adūlor	cēra	dī c ō (ere)	frētus	lētum
aēr .	cicāda	dīrus`	fūmus	liber (era, erum)
āla	cīvis	dīves	fūnis	lībō `
ālea	clāmō	dīvus	fūnus	līlium
altāre	clārus	dōnee	fūror (ārī)	limen
amárus	ciāvus	dōnum	glēba	līmes
ancile	clēmēns	dūcō	glōria	linum
anhēlus	clīvus	dūdum	grāmen	līveō
antiquus	codex	dūrus	grātus	lòrum
āra	c ōmis	extrēmus	hāmus	lūdō
area	como	fāgus	hērēs	lūgeō
āreō	conor	fāma	hērōs	lümen
āter	conus	fānum	hōra	lūna
avēna	c ôpia	fārī	īcō	mālō
bīlis	cōram	fēcundus	imāgŏ	māne
brūma	corōna	fělix	inānis	mānēs
būbŏ	erātēr	fēmina	īra	mānō
cacūmen	erātēs	fētus	jānua	mäter
cālīgŏ	crēber	fīdā	jūcundus	mātūr us
caminus	crēdō	fīgō	jūrō	mēta
cānus	erīnis	filius	lābor (ī)	mētior
caper	crūdus	fīlum	lämentum	mīles
carina	eŭra	* finis	lāna	miror
cārus	eū ria	flāvus	lātus (a, um)	mītis
c ēdō (ere)	dēbeō	flümen	lēgō (āre)	mõlēs
		Territoria.		

Including a few derivatives and compounds.

mūgeō	ŏtium	pū b er	sēdō	tōtus
mūniō	pāgus	pūniö	serēnus	trūdō
ាធីរាបន	pālor	pūrus	sērus	über
mūrus	pāuis	quālis	sīdō	ūdus
nuūsa	pāreō	rādī x	sincērus	ũmeō
ınütö	penātēs	rādō	sõlor	ūnus
mūtus	perītus	rāmus	sõlus '	ūrō
nāris	pīlum	rārus	sõplõ	ūtor
nāvis	pīn u s	rēmus	spica	ūva
nīdus	plānus	rīde ō	spina	ū vid us
nītor (ī)	plēnus	rīpa	spīrō	vādō
nodus	plūma	rītus	spūma	vānus
nōnus	poēta	rīvus	squāleō	vātēs
nūbēs	põmum	rōbu	stīpō	vēlŏx
nühö	põne	rōdo	strāgēs	vēlum
nūdus	pōnō	rūga	strenuns	vēna
nūtō	pōtō	rūmor	strīdeō	venēnum
ōlím	prātum	rūpēs	sūdō	vēnor
ōmen	prāvus	sānus	tābēs	vērus
opācus	primus	scālae	tālis	vīlis
opimus	prīvus	scrībō	tēlum	vīnum
ōra	promo	scūtum	tē mŏ	VĪVÕ
ōrō	prōra	sēdēs	tībla	

CHAPTER 11.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

- 596. Latin Versification is based upon QUANTITY. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.¹
- In quantity or time the unit of measure is the short syllable, indicated either by a curve of or by an eighth note in music, . A long syllable
- ¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of accented and unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of long and short syllables. The rhythmic accent or ictus (599) in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me	not', in	mourn'-ful	num'-bers
Life' is	but' an	emp'-1y	dream'.
Trū'-di-	tur' di-	ēs' di-	φ'.
At' fi-	dës' et	in'-ge-	nI'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent or ictus falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables—On Latin Versification, see Ramsay's 'Latin Prosody.'; Schmidt's 'Rhythmik und Metrik.' translated by Professor White; Christ's 'Metrik.'

has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign —, or by a quarter note in music, This unit of measure is also called a *time* or *mora*.

Note 1.—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value (1) of three short syllables, indicated by the sign \sqsubseteq , or \rfloor .; or (2) of four short syllables, indicated by \sqsubseteq , or \rfloor .

Note 2.—A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have the value of a short syllable, indicated by the sign >, or . A syllable thus used is said to have *irrational* time.

597. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are—

```
Daetyl, one long and two short, - \smile \cup \cup \cup carmina. Spondee, two long sylvables, - - \cup \cup \cup leges.
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II. FEET OF THREE TIMES OR THREE MORAE.

Trochee,	one long and one short,		15	lēgis.
Iambus,	one short and one long,	<u> </u>	لأحم	parēns.
Tribrach,	three short syllables,	\sim	111	dominus.

NOTE 1 .- To these may be added the following:

```
Pyrrhie,
                       pater.
                                         Ditrochee,
                                                                   eīvitātis.
Anapaest,
                       bonitās.
                                         Dispondee,
                                                        — — — praeceptōrēs.
           ---
Baechins,
                       dolörēs.
                                         Greater Ionic, ---
                                                                   sententia.
                       mīlitēs.
                                         Lesser Ionic,

→ − − adolēscēns.

Cretic,
Dijambns,
                       amoenitās.
                                         Choriambus,
                                                                   impatiens.3
```

Note 2.—A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three feet; a Tetrapody of four, etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half, etc.

598. Metrical Equivalents.—A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

Note.—Thus the Daetyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondee becomes a Daetyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the Daetyl, the Spondee, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

¹ See foot-note 1, p. 349.

² Sometimes called Choree.

³ The feet here mentioned as having four syllables are only compounds of disyllable feet. Thus the *Diiambus* is a double Iambus; the *Ditrochee*, a double Trochee; the *Dispondee*, a double Spondee; the *Greater Ionic*, a Spondee and a Pyrrhie; the *Lesser Ionic*, a Pyrrhic and a Spondee; the *Choriambus*, a Trochee (Choree) and an lambus.

- 1. In certain kinds of verse admitting *irrational* time (596, 1, note 2), Spoudees, Dactyls, and Anapaests are shortened to the time of a Trochee or of an Iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.
- 1) A Spondee used for a Trochee is called an Irrational Trochee, and is marked ->.
- 2) A Spondee used for an lambus is called an Irrational lambus, and is marked > -.
 - 3) A Daetyl used for a Trochee is called a Cyclic Daotyl, and is marked
- 4) An Anapaest used for an Iambus is called a Cyolic Anapaest, and is marked --.
- 599. ICTUS OR RHYTHMIC ACCENT.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.
- 1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet

Note.—Thus the Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Anapaest and the Iambus on the last.

2. Equivalents take the ietus of the feet for which they are used.

NOTE 1.—Thus the Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl —l. e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest—l. e., on the last syllable.

Note 2.—Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally used as equivalents, and are accented accordingly.

Note 3.—When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented ong syllable of the original foot, the ictus properly belongs to both of these syllables, but 's marked upon the first. Thus a Tribrach used for an Iambus is marked $\smile \smile$.

- 600. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising), and the unaccented part, the Thesis (lowering).
- 601. Verses.—A verse is a line of poetry (596). It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

Note 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms $\tilde{a}\rho\sigma\iota_{\Sigma}$ and $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota_{\Sigma}$ of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. The terms have now been so long and so generally used in this sense that it is not deemed advisable to the part of the roiginal signification.

- Note 2.-Two verses sometimes unite and form a compound verse; see 628, X
- NOTE 8.—Metre means measure, and is variously used, sometimes designating the neasure or quantity of syllables, and sometimes the foot or measure ' of a verse.
- 602. CAESURA OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which naturally separates these parts is called—
- 1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot; see 611.
- 2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot; see 611, 2 and 3.

Note.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diacresis, while some consist of a single rhythmic series.³

- 603. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus—
- 1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).
- 2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

Note 1.—A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called *Dactylic*; with a Trochee, *Trochaic*; with an Iambus, *Iambic*, etc.

Note 2.—A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.

Note 3.—A verse which closes with a complete measure is called Acatalectic; 4 with an incomplete measure, Catalectic; 4 with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.

NOTE 4.—The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

Note 5.—A Catalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllabam, in disyllabum, or in trisyllabum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

NOTE 6.—Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Ductylie Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

604. Verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets.

Note 1.—Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Supphic, from Supphō; Glyconie, from Glycōn, etc.

In dactylic verses a measure is a single foot, but in trochaic and iambic verses it is a dipody or a pair of feet.

² Caesūra (from $caed\tilde{v}$, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the rerse into parts.

³ A verse consisting of a single series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.

From the Greek ακατάληκτος, καταληκτικός, and ὑπέρμετοςς

- Note 2.—Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they were applied: as *Heroic*, applied to heroic subjects; *Paroemiac*, to proverbs, etc.
- 605. The Final Syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.
- 606. A STANZA is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole; see 631.

Note.—A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of Sour, a Tetrastich.

607. RHYTHMICAL READING.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

NOTE.—Scanning consists in separating a poem or verse into the feet of which it is composed.

- 608. Figures of Prosody.—The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.
- I. ELISION.—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided $^{\mathfrak{g}}$ before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Monstrum horrendum informe ingens, for Monstrum horrendum informe ingens. Verq.

NOTE 1 .- For Exceptions, see Hiatus, II., below.

Note 2.—Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes dropped before a consonant :

Pyrrhin' connubia servas? for Pyrrhine connubia servas? Verg.

Note 8. - In the early poets final a is often dropped before consonants:

Ex omnibut rebus, for ex omnibus rebus. Lucr

Note 4.—The elision of a final m with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Ecthlipsis.

Note 5.—The elision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final m with the preceding rowel, is sometimes called Synaloepha, 3 or, if at the end of a line, Synapheia.

- II. Hiatus.—A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel. Thus—
- 1. The interjections δ , heu, and pr δ are not elided; see Verg., Aen., X., 18; Geor., II., 486.
- 2. Long vowels and diphthongs are sometimes retained, especially in the arsis of a foot; see Verg., Ec., III., 6; VII., 52.
- 1 In school this is sometimes done in a purely mechanical way, sacrificing words to feet; but even this mechanical process is often useful to the beginner, as it makes him familiar with the poetical ictus.
- ² That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistincticulated, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:
 - "The eternal years of God are hers."

From the Greek εκθλιψις, συναλοιφή, and συνάφεια

Note 1.- This is most common in proper names.

NOTE 2.—Vergil employs this form of hiatus more freely than the other Latin poets and yet the entire Aeneld furnishes only a short list of examples.

Note 3.—In the thesis a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg., Aen., 111., 211; VI., 507.

NOTE 4.—Hiatus with a short final vowel is rare, but occurs even in Vergil; see Aen., I., 405; Ec., II., 53.

III. SYNAERESIS.—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one:

aurea, deinde, deinceps, fidem, fisdem, eaedem, prohibeat (pronounced proibeat).

Note 1.—In the different parts of desum, ee is generally pronounced as one syllable: deese, deest, deerat, deerit, etc.; so ei in the verb anteeo: antere, anterem, antere, antert.

NOTE 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w. Thus abiete and ariete become abyete and aryete; genua and tenues become genua and tenues.

NOTE 3 .- In Plautus and Terence, Synaeresis is used with great freedom.

Note 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Synizesis,

IV. Diaeresis.—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes retained distinct:

aurāi for aurae, Orpheüs for Orpheüs, soluendus for solvendus, silva

Note.—Diacresis properly means the resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by diacresis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

V. DIASTOLE.—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the arsis of a foot:

Prīamidēs for Priamidēs.

Note 1.—This poetic license occurs chiefly in proper names and in final syllables.

Note 2.—Vergil uses this license quite freely. He lengthens que in sixteen instances.

VI. Systole.—A syllable usually long is sometimes short:

tulerunt for tulerunt, steterunt for steterunt (236, note), vide'n for videsne.

Note.—This poetic license occurs most frequently in final vowels and diphthongs.

VII. SYNCOPE.—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 614.

SECTION II.

VARIETIES OF VERSE.

I. DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

609. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

610. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (605).² The scale is,²

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg. Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | jae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg. Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg. Illī bin- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracchia | tollunt. Verg.

- 1. The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees. Thus a verse may contain—
 - 1) Five Dactyls and one Spondee, as in the first example above.
 - 2) Four Dactyls and two Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 3) Three Dactyls and three Spondees, admitting six different arrangements.
 - 4) Two Dactyls and four Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 5) One Dactyl and five Spendees, as in the fourth example.
- 2. Effect of Dactyls.—Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
 - 3. Spondato Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the

4 Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows.

The notation of means that, instead of the original measure of the equivalent of the used.

The final & of illi is elided; see 608, I.

¹ This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman metres. In Greece it attained its perfection in the poems of Homer. It was introduced into Italy in a somewhat imperfect form by the poet Ennius about the middle of the second century before Christ; but it was improved by Lucretius, Catullus, Catullus, and others, until it attained great excellence in the works of the Augustan poets. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hoxameters are found in the works of Ovid and Vergil.

The Dactylie Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. See Christ, 'Metrik der Griechen und Römer,' pp. 110, 164.

In this scale the sign' marks the ictus (599), and — codenotes that the original Dactyl, marked — codenotes that the original Dactyl marked — codenotes that the codenotes that the original Dactyl marked — codenotes that the codenotes that the original Dactyl marked — codenotes that the codenotes the codenotes that the codenotes the codenotes that the codenotes that the codenotes

With these lines of Vergii compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline Longfellow:

[&]quot;This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it

Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntaman?"

fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Cara de- | um sobo- | les mag- | num Jovis | incre- | mentum. Verg.

NOTE.—In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in incrementum above.

611. CAESURA, OR CAESURAL PAUSE. -- The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot:

Armă- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clămor et | āgmine | factō. Verg. Înfan- | dum. rē- | gīna, || ju- | bēs reno- | vâre do- | lōrem. Verg.

NOTE.—In the first line, the caesural panse, marked \parallel , is after *tendunt*, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after $r\bar{c}gIna$, in the thesis (naju) of the third foot. The former is called the *Masculine Caesura*, the latter the *Feminine Caesura*.

1. The CAESURAL PAUSE is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; || vēr | illud e- | rat, || vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. BUCOLIC DIAERESIS.—A pause called the *Bucolic Diaeresis*,⁵ because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Grecks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

Ingen- | tem cae- | lo soni- | tum dedit ; ll inde se- | cūtus. Very.

Note.—The $Bucolic\ Diagresis\ was\ avoided\ by\ the\ best\ Latin\ poets,\ even\ in\ treating\ pastoral\ subjects.$ Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.

3. A DIAERESIS at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lenius e- | quis furit ; | omnes | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

¹ A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spoudaic lines than all the works of Vergil.

 $^{^2}$ But Vergil has two spondaic lines ending et māgnīs dīs ; see Aen., HI., 12, and VIII., 679.

³ That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the 2nd of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the casural pause coincides with a pause in the sense; see Christ, 'Metrik,' p. 184. According to some writers, the Dactylic Hexameter had its origin in the union of two earlier dactylic verses, and the caesural pause now marks the point of union; see Christ, p. 173.

⁴ The Masculine Caesura is also called the *Strong*, or the *Syllabic*, Caesura, the Feminine the *Weak*, or the *Trochaic*, Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the arsis of the second foot is called *Trihemimeral*; after the arsis of the third, *Penthemimeral*; after the arsis of the fourth. *Hephthemimeral*.

⁵ Also called the Bucolic Caesura, as the term caesura is often made to include diagresis.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ea- | no, || Tro- | jae qui | primus ab | oris. Verg.

Note.—Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after $can\bar{o}$, in the third foot, has the caesural panse.¹

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Romae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armīs. Enn.

NOTE 1.—The Penthemimeral 2 caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as above.

Note 2.—A happy effect is often produced—

1) By combining the feminine caesura in the third foot with the hephthemimeral and the trihemimeral:

Donec e- | ris fe- | lix, || mul- | tos nume- | rabis a- | micos. Verg.

2) By combining the hephthemimeral with the trihemimeral;

Inde to- | ro pater | Aene- | as sic | orsus ab | alto. Verg.

Note 3.—The union of the feminine caesara with the trihemimeral, common in Greek, is somewhat rare in Latin, but it sometimes produces an harmonious verse:

Praecipi- | tat, sna- | dentque ca- | dentia | sīdera | somnōs. Very.

- Note 4.—In the last two feet of the verse there should in general be no caesura whatever, unless it falls in the thesis of the fifth foot; but when that foot contains two entire words, a caesura is admissible after the arsis.
 - 612. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables. Thus-
- 1. In the first, second, and fourth feet of the verse it falls sometimes upon accented and sometimes upon unaccented syllables; see examples under 610.
- 2. In the third foot it generally falls upon an unaccented syllable; see examples under 610.
- 3. In the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 616.
- 613. The LAST WORD OF THE HEXAMETER is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable; see examples under 610 and 611.

¹ The caesura with the pause is variously called the chief caesura, the caesura of the verse, the caesura of the rhythm, etc. In distinction from this any other caesura may be called a caesura, a caesura of the foot, or a minor caesura.

² See p. 356, foot-note 4.

² The learner should be informed that the niceties of structure which belong to fin ished Latin hexameters must be sought only in the poems of Vergil and Ovid. The happiest disposition of caesuras, the best adjustment of the poetical ictus to the prose accent, and the most approved structure in the closing measures of the verse, can not be expected in the rude numbers of Enulus, in the scientific discussions of Lucretius, or even in the familiar Satires of Horace. Those interested in the peculiarities of Latin hexameters in different writers will find a discussion of the subject in Lucian Müller's work. De remetrica poetarum Latinorum practer Plantum et Terentium libri septem.

Note 1 .- Spondalc lines are exceptions; see 610, 3, note.

Note 2.—Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cu- | rae, || tur- | bătaque | funere | mena est. /erg.

NOTE 3.—Est, even when not preceded by another monosyllable, may stand at the end of a line.

NOTE 4.—A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

Parturi- | unt mon- | tes, || nas- | cetur | ridicu- | lus mus. Hor.

Note 5.—In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (603, note 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final em or um before the initial vowel of the next line; see Aen., I., 382; Geor., I., 295. See also 608, I., note 5.

II. OTHER DACTYLIC VERSES.

614. DACTYLIC PENTAMETER. —The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by a diaeresis. Each part consists of two Dactyls and a long syllable. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

$$\bot \infty | \bot \infty | \bot \overline{\wedge} | \bot \cup \cup | \bot \cup \cup | \bot \overline{\wedge};$$

Admoni- | tū coe- | pī || fortior | esse tu- | ō. Ovid.

615. ELEGIAC DISTICH.—The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sèmise | pulta vi- | rûm || cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs Ossa, ru- | īnō- | sās || occulit | herba do- | mūs. Ovid.

NOTE 1.—In reading the Elegiac Distich, the Pentameter, including pauses, should of course occupy the same time as the Hexameter.

Note 2.—Elegaic composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of metre. The sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid furnishes us the best specimens of this style of composition.

616. The DACTYLIC TETRAMETER is identical with the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ībimus | ō soci- | ī, comi- | tēsque. Hor.

In musical characters the scale of this verse is as follows:

¹ The name *Pentameter* is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet, consisting of two Dactyls, or Spondees, a Spondee and two Anapaests.

² Thus in reading, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that syllable may be prolonged to fill out the measure. A pause or rest equal to a short syllable is marked A; a pause equal to a long syllable A.

Norm.—In compound verses, as in the Greater Architochian, the tetrameter in composition with other metres has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 628, X.

617. The DACTYLIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC is identical with the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

Nora .- The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is also known as the Lesser Architochian.

III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

618. The TROCHAIC DIPODY, the measure in Trochaic verse, consists of two Trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 1))—i. e., it has the form of a Spondee with the time of a Trochee:

NOTE 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents (598), a Tribrach $\smile \smile$ may take the place of the Trochee $- \smile \smile$, and an apparent Anapaest $- \smile \smile$ the place of the Irrational Trochee $- \smile \smile$. In proper names a cyclic Dactyl $- \smile \smile$ (598, 1, 3)) may occur in either foot.

NOTE 2.—In the Trochaic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second. NOTE 3.—A syllable is sometimes prefixed to a Trochaic verse. A syllable thus used is called Anacrusis (upward beat), and is separated from the following measure by the mark:

619. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scale:

Aula divi- | tem manet. Hor.

Note .- A Trochate Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 628, X.

1. The Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcaic stanza is a Trochaic Director with Anacrusis:

Pu- : er quis ex au- | la capillis. Hor.

620. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a diacresis (602, 2) at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

Primus ad ci- | bum vocatur, | primo pulmen- | tum datur. Plaut.

Bee 601, note 8, with foot-note.

³ Thus in the second foot of a Trochaic Dipody the poet may use a Trochec, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time as the Trochec or the Tribrach—I. e., they have irrational time.

Only the leading ictus of each dipody is here marked

Note 1.—This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diagresis.

NOTE 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great scence in the use of feet. The Irrational Trochee (598, 1, 1)) and its equivalents may occur in any foot except in the last dipody.

Note 8 .- The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic also occurs in the earlier poets:

Ipse summis | saxis fixus || asperis e- | viscerātus. Enn.

IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

621. The IAMBIC DIPODY, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two Iambi, the first of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 2))—i. e., it has the *form* of a Spondee with the *time* of an Iambus:

Note 1.—The Tribrach for the Iambus, and the Dactyl 2 or Anapaest 2 for the Irrational Iambus, are rare, except in comedy.

NOTE 2.—In the Ionic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

622. The IAMBIC TRIMETER, also called Senarius, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The Caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

Quid obseră- | tīs || auribus | fundis preces ? Hor. Neptūnus al- | tō || tundit hī- | bernus salo. Hor. Hās inter epu- | lās || ut juvat | pāstās ovēs. Hor.

- 1. In Proper Names, a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.
- 2. In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Tambus and the Spon dee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl, and the Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.
- 3. In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the Spondee and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

1 Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as eparate lines:
4 Lives' of great men | all' remind us

We' can make our | lives' sublime, And', departing, | leave' behind us Foot'prints on the | sands' of time."

³ This same scale, divided thus, $\geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$

Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza: When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave 4. The Choliambus is a variety of Jambic Trimeter with a Trochee in the sixth foot: 1

Miser Catul- | le desinas | ineptire. Catul.

623. The IAMBIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC occurs in Horace with the following scale:

Vocatus at- | que non voca- | tus audit. Hor.

Note.—The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

624. The IAMBIC DIMETER consists of two Iambic Dipodies:

Queruntur in | silvīs avēs. Hor. Imbrēs nivēs- | que comparat. Hor. Ast ego vicis- | sim rīserō. Hor.

Note 1.—Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

Note 2.—Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

625. The Iambic Tetrameter consists of four Iambic Dipo dies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellex- | 1 modo senis || sententiam | de nuptiis. Ter.

NOTE.—Iambio Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:

Quot commodàs | res attuli? || quot autem ade | mī cūrās. Ter.

V. IONIC VERSE.

626. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

Neque pugno | neque segni | pede victus; Catus idem | per apertum. Hor.

Note 1.—In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position (p. 338, foot-note 3). Thus us in victus is long before c in catus.

Note 2.—The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadean Verse, occurs shiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:

¹ Chollambus, or Scazon, means lame or limping Jambus, and is so called from its limping movement. it is explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (608, VII.) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus: ○ : ∠ ∪ − ∪ | ∠ ∪ − ∪ | ∠ ∪ − □

VI. LOGACEDIC VERSE.

627. Logacedic¹ Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee ∠>, the Cyclic Dactyl ∠ , and the Syncopated Trochee ∟ (608, VII.) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.²

Note.—Logacedic verses show great variety of form, but a few general types will indicate the character of the whole.

628. The following Logacedic verses appear in Horace:

I. The ADONIC:

II. The First Pherecratic 3 or the Aristophanic:

Note.—Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tripody It is called the First or Second Pherecratic according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be accatalectic or catalectic:

2) ∠ > | ∠ ∪ | ∠ ⊃ or catalectic. ∠ > | ∠ ∪ | ∠ ∧

In Logacedic verse the term basis or base, marked \times , is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyi. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot $_>$ is the base.

III. The Second Glyconic 3 Catalectic:

Note 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic according as its Dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic. Note 2.—The Second Glyconic sometimes has a Syncope (608, VII.) in the third foot.

IV. The LESSER ASCLEPIADEAN ^a consists of two Catalectic Pherecratics, a Second and a First:

1 From λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.

³ Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic,
$$\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \Box \land$$

First Glyconic. $\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$
Auclepiadēan, $\angle > \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$

² The free use of long syllables in the thesis causes the poetical ictus on the arsis to appear less prominent.

V. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of three catalectic verses, a Second Pherecratic, an Adonic, and a First Pherecratic:

Seu plu- | rês hie- | mès, || seu tribu- | it || Juppiter | ulti- | mam. Hor.

VI. The LESSER SAPPHIC consists of a Trochaic Dipody and a First Pherecratic:

Namque | me sil- | va lupus | 12. 5a- | pina. Hor.

VII. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Catalectic Glyconics, a Third and a First with Syncope.

Inter | aequă- | les equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pă- | tis. Hor.

VIII. The LESSER ALCAIC consists of two Cyclic Dactyls and two Trochees:

$$\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |$$

Purpure-| o vari-| us co-| lore. Hor.

IX. The Greater Alcaic consists of a Trochaic Dipody with Anacrusis and a Catalectic First Pherecratic:

Vi- : des ut | alta | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

X. The Greater Archilochian' consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (616) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nos vetat, || incho- | are | longam. Hor.

NOTE.—This verse may be explained either as Logacedic or as Compound With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 601, note 2.

629. The following Logacedic verses not used in Horace deserve mention:

I. The Phalaecian is a Logacedic Pentapody: 2

Non est | vivere, | sed va- | lere | vita. Mart.

¹ For the Lesser Archilochian, see 617, note.

² This verse differs from the Lesser Supplie in having the Dactyi in the second foot, while the latter has the Dactyi in the third.

II. The SECOND PRIAPEAN consists of two Catalectic Second Glyconics with Syncope:

$$\angle > |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |$$
 | $|\angle > |\angle \cup |$ | $|\angle |$ \left\ Quercus | ārida | rūsti- | cā || confor- | māta se | cū- | rī. Catul.

SECTION III.

THE VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS

630. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of metres in his Odes and Epodes.

LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

631. For convenience of reference, an outline of the lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

Stanzas of Four Verses or Lines.

I. Alcaic Stanza.—First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (628, IX.); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (619, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (628, VIII.):

In thirty-seven Odes: I., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV., 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. SAPPHIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (628, VI.); the fourth, Adonic (628, I.):

In twenty-six Odes: I., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV., 2, 6, 11; and Secular Hymn.

III. GREATER SAPPHIC STANZA.—First and third lines, First Glyconics Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (608, VII.); second and fourth lines, Greater Sapphics:

In Ode I., 8.

IV. FIRST ASCLEPIADEAN GLYCONIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the fourth. Second Glyconic Catalegue (628, III.):

In nine Odes: I., 6, 15, 24, 33; H., 12; HI., 10, 16; IV., 5, 12

V. SECOND ASCLEPIADEAN GLYCONIC STANZA.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (628, III., note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

In seven Odes: I., 5, 14, 21, 23; III., 7, 13; IV., 13

VI. GLYCONIC ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Second Glyconics Catalectic (628, III.); second and fourth, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.);

$$\begin{array}{l} 1. \\ 3. \\ 4. \\ \end{array}$$

In twelve Odes: I., 3, 13, 19, 36; HL, 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28 IV., 1, 3.

VII. LESSER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Lesser Asclepiadeans:

In three Odes: I., 1; III., 30; IV., 8.

VIII. Greater Asclepiadēan Stanza. - Four Greater Asclepiadēans (628, V.):

In three Odes: I., 11, 18; IV., 10.

IX. DOUBLE ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexa meters (610); second and fourth, Dactylic Tetrameters '\$16):

$$\begin{array}{l}
1. \\
3. \\
4. \\
\end{array}$$

$$-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\omega|-\omega|$$

In two Odes: I., 7, 28.

Note.—This stanza is formed by the union of two Alemanian stanzas; see XIX. below.

N. TROCHAIC STANZA.—First and third lines, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (619); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode II., 18.

XI. DACTYLIC ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters; second and fourth, Catalectic Dactylic Trimeters (617, note):

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \begin{cases}
-\infty |-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\omega|
\end{cases}$$

$$\frac{2}{4} \cdot \begin{cases}
-00|-00|$$

In Ode IV., 7.

XII. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Greater Archilochians (628, X.); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode I., 4.

NOTE.—The second and fourth lines are sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

XIII. IONIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Ionic Dimeters (626); third and fourth, Ionic Trimeters (626):

In Ode III., 12.

NOTE —This ode is variously arranged in different editions, sometimes in stanzas of three lines and sometimes of four.

Stanzas of Three Lines.

XIV. FIRST ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter; third, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic:

In Epode 13.

Note.-In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XV. SECOND ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic; third, Iambic Dimeter:

In Epode 11.

Note.-In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

Stanzas of Two Lines.

XVI. IAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter:

In the first ten Epodes.

XVII. FIRST PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (624):

1.
$$-\infty$$
 $|-\infty|$ $-\infty$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-2$ 2. 2 $|-2$ $|-2$

In Epodes 14 and 15.

XVIII. Second Pythiambic Stanza.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ 2. $2-0-|$ $|2-0-|$

In Epode 16.

XIX. ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Dactylic Tetrameter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$

In Epode 12.

Not grouped into Stanzas.

XX. IAMBIC TRIMETER:

In Epode 17.

632. INDEX TO THE LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 631.

	Воок	I.		ODE	8.	METRES.	ODES.		METRES,
opes.			METRES.	4	• • • • • • • • •	II.	26 .		I.
1	 .		VII.	5		I.	27 .		II,
2			II.	6	· · · · · · · · · · ·	II.	28 .		VI.
3	. .		VI.	7		I.	29 .		I.
4			XII.	8		II.	30 .		VII
5			v.	9		I.			
6 .			IV.	10		II.		Book IV.	
			IX.	11		Ī.	1.		VI.
		•	III.	12		IV.			II.
			I.	13		Ī.			VI.
			ıî.	14		Ī.			I.
			VIII.	15		_Î.			IV.
			II.	16		II.			II.
	• • • • • •		VI.		• • • • • • • • • •				
	• • • • • •			17	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	I.		• • • • • • • •	XI.
			V.	18	· · · · · • • · · · ·	X.	_	• • • • • • • •	VII.
	• • • • • •		IV.	19	• • • • • • • • •	Į.		• • • • • • •	I.
			I.	20		I.			VIII.
			I.						II.
		٠.	VIII.		Book III		12 .		IV.
19			VI.	1		I.	13 .		v.
20			H.	2		I.	14 .		I.
21							1 2		Υ
21			v.	3		I.	15 .		I.
			V. II.	4		I. I.	10 .	• • • • • • • • •	1.
22				_			10 .		1.
$\begin{array}{c} 22 \ \dots \\ 23 \ \dots \end{array}$			II.	4		I.		EPODES.	
22 23 24	• • • • • • •		II. V. IV.	4 5 6		I. I. I.	EPODI	EPOCES.	METRES. XVI.
22 23 24 25	• • • • • • • •		II. V. IV. II.	4 5 6 7		I. I. I. V.	ерорі 1	EPOCES.	METERS. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26			II. V. IV. II. I.	4 5 6 7 8		I. I. I. V. II.	ЕРОРІ 1 . 2 .	EPOCES.	METERS. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27			II. V. IV. II. I. I.	4 5 6 7 8 9		I. I. V. II. VI.	1 . 2 . 3 .	EPODES.	METEKS. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27			II. V. IV. II. I. I. IX.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10		I. I. V. II. VI. IV.	1 . 2 . 3 . 4 .	EPOCES.	METERS. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. I.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II.	2 . 3 . 4 . 5 .	EPOCES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 29 30			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. I. II.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II. XIII.	1	EPOCES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 29 30			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. I. II. II.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II. XIII. V.	2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 .	EPOCES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. I. II. II.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II. XIII. V. II.	1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 .	EPODES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. I. II. II. II. IV.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. XIII. V. II. V. II. V.	1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 . 9 .	EPOLES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33			II. V. IV. II. IX. II. II. IV. II. IV. I.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VIII. VIII. VIII. VI. III. VI. III. VI. IV.	EPOPH 1	EPOCES.	MRTBES. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 34			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. II. II. II. II. II. II. IV.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17		I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VIII. VI. III. VI. III. VI. III. VI. III. VI. III.	2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 . 9 . 10 . 11 .	EPOEES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 29 30 31 32 33 34 35			II. V. IV. II. I. II. II. II. IV. IV. IV	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II. XIII. VI. II. VI. II. IV. II. II. III.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 .	EPOEES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 35 36			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. II. II. II. II. IV. II. IV. II. IV. II. II	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. II. VII. VII. V	1 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 . 9 . 10 . 11 . 12 . 13 .	EPODES.	XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 35 36			II. V. IV. II. I. II. II. II. IV. IV. IV	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VII. VIII. VIII. VIII. VIII. VIII. VIII. III. VIII. III. VIII. III. VIII.	1	EPOEES.	METBLS. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 35 36			II. V. IV. II. I. IX. II. II. IV. IV. II. III. I	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21		I. I. I. V. VI. IV. II. VII. VII. VII.	1	EPOEES.	METBES. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 35 36 37	Воок	II.	II. V. IV. II. I. IX. II. II. IV. IV. II. IV. II. IV. II. II	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VI. III. VI. III. VI. III. III. III. III. III. III.	1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 . 9 . 10 . 11 . 12 . 13 . 14 . 15 . 16 .	EPOEES.	METRES. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 34 35 37 38	Воок	II.	II. V. IV. II. I. IX. II. II. IV. IV. II. III. I	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VII. VII.	1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 . 6 . 7 . 8 . 9 . 10 . 11 . 12 . 13 . 14 . 15 . 16 .	EPOEES.	METBES. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 35 36 37 38	Воок	II.	II. V. IV. II. I. II. II. VI. II. II. II	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VII. VI. II. VI.	1	EPOCES.	METERS. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 30 31 32 33 35 36 37 38	Воок	II.	II. V. IV. II. I. II. II. II. II. II. II	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23		I. I. I. V. II. VI. IV. III. VII. VII.	1	EPOEES.	METRES. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI. XVI

633. The metres of the following poets must be briefly mentioned:

I. CATULLUS uses shiefly (1) the Elegiac Distich (615); (2) Phalaecian

verse (629, I.); (3) Choliambus or Scazon (622, 4); (4) Iambic Trimeter (622); (5) Priapean (629, II.).

II. MARTIAL uses largely the Choliambus or Scazon and the Phalaecian verse.

Note 1 .- Martial also uses lambic and Dactylic measures.

Note 2.—Seneca in his chorai odes imitates the lyric metres of Horace. He uses Sapphics very freely, and often combines them into systems closing with the Adonic.

NOTE 3.—Seneca also uses Anapacstic 1 verse with Spondees and Dactyls as equivalents. This consists of one or more dipodies:

Venient annis | saecula seris.

III. Plautus and Terence use chiefly various Iambic and Trochaic metres, but they also use-

1. BACCHIAC 1 METRES, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Multās' rēs | simī'tū in | meō' cor- | de vor'sō. Plaut. At ta'ınen ubī | fidēs' ? sī | rogēs', nīl | pendent' hīc. Ter.

Note.— The Molossus, ———, may take the place of the Bacchius, as in multae ree, and the long syllables may be resolved, as in at tamen ubi.

2. CRETIC 1 METRES, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Nam' dolī | non' dolī | sunt', nisi as- | tū' colās. Plaut. Ut' malīs | gau'deant | at'que ex in- | com'modīs. Ter.

Note 1.—Plantus also uses Anapaestic metres, especially Dimeters:

Quod ago' subit, ad- | secué' sequitur. Plaut.

This measure admits Dactyls and Spondees, rarely Proceleusmatics, ----

Note 2.—For Trochaic and Iambic Metres in Comedy, see 620, note 2; 622, 8.

Note 3.—For Special Peculiarities in the prosody of Plautus and Terence, see
576, notes 2 and 3; 578, note 2; 580, notes 2, 3, and 4.2

NOTE 4.—On the free use of Synaeresis in Comedy, see 608, III., note 3.

¹ See 603, note 1; 597, note 1.

² For a full account of the metres of Plautus and Terence, see editions of those poets; as the edition of Plautus by Ritschi, of a part of Plautus by Harrington, the edition of Terence by Wagner, and the edition by Crowell; also Spangel, 'Plautus: Kritik, Prosoile, Metrik:

APPENDIX.

I. FIGURES OF SPEECE.

634. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, a signification of words.

Note.—Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology; from the ordinary constructions, Figures of Syntax; and from the ordinary significations, Figures of Rhetoric.

635. The principal FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY are-

- 1. APHAERESIS, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word: 'ef for est.
- 2. Syncope, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word: disc for disclass.
 - 8. Apocope, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word: tūn' for tūne.

 4. Eprevilles, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alcumena for Alcumena.
- EPENTHESIS, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alcumēna for Alc mēna, ālituum for ālitum.
 - 5. METATHESIS, the transposition of letters: pistrie for pristia
 - 6. See also Figures of Prosony, 608.

636. The principal FIGURES OF SYNTAX are-

I. Ellipsis, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Habitabat ad Jovis (sc. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hie illius arma (fuerunt), hie currus fuit, here were her arms, here ker chariot. Vera.

1. Asynderon is an ellipsis of a conjunction: 1

Vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, *I came*, *I saw*, *I conquered*. Snet. See also 554, I., 6, with note 1. 2. For the Ellipsis of *facio*, *dīcō*, *ōrō*, see 368, 3, note 1; 523, I., note; 569, II., 3

8. For Aposiopesis or Reticentia, see 637, XI., 3.

II. BRACHYLOGY, a concise and abridged form of expression:

Nostri Gracce nesciunt nec Gracci Latine, our people do not know Greek and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin. Cic. Natura hominis beluis antecedit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

1. Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one:

Pacem an bellum gerens, whether at peace or waging war. Sall. Due's pictasque exure carinas, slay the leaders and burn the painted ships. Verg.

¹ Asyndeton is sometimes distinguished according to its use, as Adversative, Explicative, Enumerative, etc.; see Nägelsbach, 'Stilistik,' § 200.

² Here nesciunt suggests sciunt, and belute in the second example is equivalent to belutirum nittiras.

Gerêns, applicable only to bellum, is here used also of vacem

2. Systeps:s is the use of an adjective with two or more nouns, or of a veri with two or more subjects:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead (439). Ter. It et Tullia valetis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

III. PLEONASM is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression:1

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus extre possent, there were two ways by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Notusque ruunt, both Eurus and Notus rush forth. Verg.

- 1 POLYSYNDETON is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example,
- 2. HENDIADYS is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with at adjective or genitive:

Armis virisque for viris armatis, with armed men. Tac.

8. Anaphora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses:

Mē cancta Italia, me universa cīvitās consulem declarāvit, me all Italy, me the whole state declared consul. Cic.

4. EPIPHORA is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laelins navus erat, doctus erat, Laelius was diligent, was learned. Clo.

5. EPIZEUXIS is the emphatic repetition of a word:

Fuit, fuit quondam in hac re publica virtus, there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic. Clc.

- Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated 1-fore successive nouns, regularly so with et—et;
 - Et in belliels et in civilibus officies, both in military and in civil offices. Cic.

Note.—Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

7. A demonstrative pronoun or adverb—id, hŏc, illud, sīc, ita—is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also quid, in quid cēnsēs with a clause:

illud të örö nt diligëns sis, I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diligent. One

8. Pronouns are often redundant with quidem; see 450, 4, note 2.

9 Pleonasm often occurs with licet:

Ut liceat permittltur = licet, it is lawful (is permitted that it is, etc.). Clo.

10. Circumlocutions with res, genus, modus, and ratto are common.

IV. ENALLAGE is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another;

Populus late rex (for regulans), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Verg. Serus (sero) in caclum redeas, may you return late to heaven. Hor. Vina cadis (rints cados) onerare, to fill the flasks with wine. Verg. Cursus justi (fustus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

- 1. Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.
- 2. HYPALLAGE is the use of one case for another, as in the last two examples.
- 8. Prolepsis or Anticipation is the application of an epithet in anticipation of the action of the verb:

Scuta latentia condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg. See also 440, 2.

4. Synesis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms for examples, see 438, 6; 445, 5; 461.

Pleonasm, a full or emphatic expression, differs widely from Tautology which is a needless repetition of the same meaning in different words

5. Attraction unites in construction words not united in sense:

Animal quem (for quod) vocămus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic. See also 445, 4, 8, and 9.

6. Anacotuthon is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence;

Sī, ut dīcunt, omnēs Grāios esse (Grāiī sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.

V. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Praeter arma nihil erat super (supererat), nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Valet atque vīvit (vīvit atque valet), he is alive and well. Ter: Subeunt lūcō, fluviumque relinquunt, they enter the grove and leave the river.

- 1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.
- 2. Hysteron Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the last example.

3. Tmesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word:

Nec prins respëxî quam vënimus, $nor\ did\ I\ look\ back\ before$ (sooner than) $we\ arrived.$ Verg.

- 4. Chiasmus is an inverted arrangement of words in contrasted groups; see 562.
- 637. FIGURES OF RHETORIC comprise several varieties. The following are the most important: 1
 - I. A SIMILE is a direct comparison:

Manus effügit imägő pär levibus ventīs volucrīque simillima somno, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream, escaped my hands. Verg.

II. METAPHOR is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the

appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:

Reī pūblicae vulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cic. Naufragium fortūnae, the wreck of fortune. Cic. Aures vēritātī clausae sunt, his ears are closed against the truth. Cic.

- 1. Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, I., Ode $14:\bar{O}$ nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.²
- III. METONYMY is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Aequō Mārte (for proeliō) pūgnātum est, they fought in an equal contest. Liv. Furit Vulcāuus (ignis), the fire rages. Verg. Prōximus ārdet Ūcalegōn (domus Ūcalegontis), Ucalegon burns next. Verg.

Note.—By this figure the cause is often put for the effect, and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, the material for the manufactured article, etc.: 'Mārs for bellum, Vulcānus for ignis, Bacchus for vīnum, nöbilitās for nöbilās, Graecia for Graeci, laurea for vīctōria, argentum for vāsa argentea, etc.

¹ On Figurative Language, see the eighth and ninth books of Quintilian, 'Dē Institutione Oratoria,' and the fourth book of 'Auctor ad Herennium' in Cleero's works.

² In this beautiful allegory the poet represents the vessel of state as having been well-nigh wrecked in the storms of the civil war, but as now approaching the haven of peace.

- 1. Autonomasia designates a person by some title or office, as ēversor Karthāginis for Sciptő, Römānae ēloquentiae prīnceps for Cicerő.
- IV. Synecodoche is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Station male fida carīnīs (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships. Verg.

V. IRONY is the use of a word for its opposite:

Legătos bonus (for malus) imperâtor vester non admisit, your good communder did not admit the ambassadors. Liv. See also 507, 3, note 1.

Note.-Metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony are often called Tropes.

VI. CLIMAX (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Africano industria virtūtem, virtūs gloriam, gloria aemulās comparāvit, industry procured virtue for Africanus, virtue glory, glory rivals. Cic.

VII. HYPERBOLE is an exaggeration :

Ventis et fulminis öcior ālīs, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Verg.

VIII. LITOTES denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = perniciosum est, it is not necessary. Cie.

IX. Personification or Prosopopeia represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Cūjus latus ille mūero petēbat? whose side did that weapon seek? Cie.1

 $\boldsymbol{X}.$ Apostrophe is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$

Vos, Albani tumuli, vos imploro, I implore you, ye Alban hilis. Cic.

XI. The following figures deserve brief mention:

1. Alliteration, a repetition of the same letter at the beginning of successive words:

VI victa vis est, force was conquered by force. Cic. Fortissimi viri virtus, the virtue of a most brave man. Cic.

2. Apophasis or Paraleipsis, a pretended omission: 9

Non dico te pecunias accepisse; rapinas tuas omnes omitto, I do not state that you accepted money; I omit all your acts of rapine. Cic.

3. Aposiopesis or Reticentia, an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quos ego—sed motos praestat componere fluctus, whom I—but it is better to calm the troublest waves. Verg.

4. Euphemism, the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

SI quid min' humanitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me—i. e., if I should die. Cic.

¹ See also First Oration against Catiline, VII.: Quae tecum . . . tacita loquitur, etc.

^{*} Sometimes called occupatio.

5. Onomatopoeia, the use of a word in imitation of a special sound.

Boves magiunt, the cattle low. Liv. Murmurat unda, the wave murmura Verg.

6. Oxymoron, an apparent contradiction:

Absentes adsunt et egentes abundant, the absent are present and the need; have an abundance. Cic.

7. PARONOMASIA Or AGNOMINATION, a play upon words:

Hunc avium dulcedo ducit ad avium, the attraction of birds leads him to the pathless wood. Cic.

II. LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

638. The Latin derives its name from the Latini or Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family, which embraces seven groups of tongues known as the Indian or Sanskrit, the Persian or Zend, the Greek, the Italian, the Celtic, the Slavonic, and the Teutonic or Germanic. The Latin is the leading member of the Italian group, which also embraces the Umbrian and the Oscan. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

NOTE 1.—In illustration of the relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, compare the following paradigms of declension: 2

	SINGUI	AR.	
SANSKRIT. Stem. pad,	GREEK. ποδ,	LATIN. ped,	English. foot.
Nom., pād,	πούς,	pēs,	foot.
Gen. padas, Dat. pade, Acc. pādam, Abl. padas, Ins. padā, Loc. padi,	ποδός, ποδί, πόδα, ³	pedis, pedī, pedem, pede, ⁴	of a foot. to a foot. foot. from a foot. with a foot. in a foot.
	PLURA	L.	
Nom., pādas,	módes,	pedēs,	feet.
Gen. padām, Dat. padbhyas, Acc. padas, Abl. padbhyas, Ins. padbhis, Loc. patsu,	ποδῶν, ποσί, πόδας,	pedum, pedibus, pedēs, pedibus,	of feet. to feet. feet. from feet with feet. in feet.

¹ The pun, lost in English, is in the use of āvium, a remote or pathless place, with avium, of birds.

See also p. 71, foot-note 2; p. 83, foot-note 8.

⁹ The Ablative, the Instrumental, and the Locative are lost in Greek, but their places are supplied by the Genitive and the Dative.

⁴ The final consonant, probably t, of the original Ablative ending is changed to s in padas and dropped in pede. The Instrumental and the Locative are lost in Latin, but their places are applied by the Ablative.

NOTE 2.—In these paradigms observe that the initial p in pad, $\pi o \delta$, ped, becomes f in foot, and that the final d becomes t. This change is in accordance with Grimm's Law of the Rotation of Mutes in the Germanic languages. This law is as follows:

The Primitive Mutes, which generally remain unchanged in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are changed in passing into the Germanic languages, to which the English belongs. Thus the Sonants, d, g, in passing into English, become Surds, t, k; the Surds, c, k, p, t, become Aspirates, h, wh, f (for ph), th; the Aspirates, bh, 1 dh, 1 gh, become Sonants, b, d, g.

NOTE 3.—The relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English may be sbundantly illustrated by comparing the forms of familiar words in these different languages.³

639. The earliest specimens of Latin whose date can be determined are found in ancient inscriptions, and belong to the latter part of the fourth century before Christ or to the beginning of the third. Fragments, however, of laws, hymns, and sacred formulas, doubtless of an earlier though uncertain date, have been preserved in Cato, Livy, Cicero, and other Latin writers.

⁷ Compare the following:

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	English.
dvau.	δύο,	duo,	two
trayas,	τρείς,	trēs.	three.
sat,	έξ, επτά,	sex,	six.
sapta,		septem,	seven.
daça,	δέκας	decem,	ten.
dvis,	δίς,	bls,	twice.
tris.	Tris,	ter,	thrice.
mātā,	μήτηρ,	mäter,	mother.
pitā,	πατήρ,	pater,	father.
naus,	vaûs.	nāvis,	navy.
vāk,	ōψ,	vōx,	voice.

4 Such are the ancient forms of prayer found in Cato and other writers, the fragments of Salian hymns, of the formulas of the Fetial priests, and of ancient laws, especially of the laws of the Twelve Tables. The following inscription on the tomb of the Scipios shows some of the peculiarities of early Latin:

HONC OING , PLOIRVME , CONSENTIONT , R
DVONORG , OPTYMO , FYINE , VIRO
LVCIOM , SCIPIONE , FILIOS , BARBATI
CONSOL , CENSOR , AIDILIS , HIC , FVET , A
HEG , CEPIT , CORSICA , ALERIAQVE , VRRE
DEDET , TEMPESIATERUS , AIDE , MERETO

in ordinary Latin :

Hunc ünum plürimi cönsentiunt Römät bonörum optimum fulsse virum rirörum, Lücium Scipionem. Filius Barbāti cönsul, cönsor, aedilis hic fuit apud vös. Hic cöpit Corsicam Alerianque urbem pügnandā;

dedit tempestätibus aedem merito võtam.

¹ Bh generally is represented in Latin by b or f; dh by d or f, and gh by g h, or f; see Schleicher, pp. 244-251.

² For an account of Grimm's Law, with its applications, see Max Müller, 'Science of Language,' Second Series, Lecture V.; Papilion, pp. 85-91.

- 640. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus a writer of prays, and the earliest Roman author known to us. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B. c. to 550 A. D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods. These periods, with their principal authors, are as follows:
 - I. The Ante-Classical Period, from 250 to 81 B. C.:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.

- I. The CLASSICAL PERIOD, embracing-
- I. The Golden Age, from 81 B. C. to 14 A. D.:

Cicero,	Nepos,	Horace,	Tibullus,
Caesar, Sallust,	Livy, Vergil,	Ovid, Catullus,	Propertius.
oanust,	vergn,	Catulius,	

2. The Silver Age, from 14 to 180 A. D.:

Phaedrus,	The Plinies,	Quintilian,	Persius,
Velleius,	Tacitus,	Suctonius,	Lucan,
The Senecas,	Curtius,	Juvenal,	Martial.

- III. The Post-Classical Period, embracing-
- 1. The Brazen Age, from 180 to 476 A. D.:

Justin,	Eutropius,	Lactantius,	Claudian,
Victor,	Macrobius,	Ausonius,	Terentian.

2. The Iron Age, from 476 to 550 A. D.:

Boëthius, Casslodorus, Justinian, Priscian.

III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

- 641. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
- 642. Peculiarities.—The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:
- I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
 - 1. The Calends, the first of each month.
- 2. The Nones, the fifth—but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. The Ides, the thirteenth—but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Note.—Hence, after the Ides of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month.

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before

each was denoted by $pr\bar{\imath}di\bar{\imath}$ Kalendās, $N\bar{o}n\bar{a}s$, etc.; the second before each by $di\bar{\imath}$ terti $\bar{\imath}$ (not secund \bar{o}) ante Kalendās, etc.; the third, by $di\bar{\imath}$ $qu\bar{\imath}rt\bar{\imath}$, etc.; and so on through the month.

- 1. This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridic Kalendūs, the day before the Calends; die tertio ante Kalendūs, the second day before the Calends.
- 2. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendáts, Nonds, etc., as, dié quarto ante Nonds Januarias, often shortened to quarto ante Nonds Jan, or IV. ante Nonds Jan, or without ante, as, IV. Nonds Jan, the second of January.
- Ante diem la common, instead of die—ante, as, ante diem quartum Nonas Jan, for die quarto ante Nonas Jan.
- 4. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., pridië Kal., etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Idūs Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad pridië Nonās Māiās, till the 6th of May. Cic.

643. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR.

Days of the Month.	March, May, July October.	January, August, December.	April, June, September, November.	February.
1	KALENDIS.1	KALENDIS.	KALENDIS.	KALENDIS.
	VI. Nonas,	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.
2 8 4 5 6 7 8 9	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Prīdie Nonas.	Pridie Nonas.	Pridie Nonas.
5	III. "	Nonis.	Nonis.	Nonis.
6	Pridič Nonas.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Idūs.
7	Nonis.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Īdūs.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	iv. "
11	V. "	III. "	111. "	III. "
19	IV. "	Pridie Idus.	Pridic Idns.	Pridia Idūs.
18	III. "	ĪDIBUS.	TDIBUS.	DIBUS.
14	Pridie Idus.	XIX. Kalend.2	XVIII, Kalend.2	XVI. Kalend.2
15	ĪDIBUS.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Kalend.		XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
	XIII. "	XIII. 4	XII. "	X. "
21	XIL "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XL "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	ix. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	vi. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	Ÿ. (∇I.)2 "
26	VII. "	VII. "	vi. "	IV. (V.)
27	VI. "	VI. "	v. "	iii. (iv.) "
28	v	V. "	ĬŸ. "	Prid. Kal. (III.K
29	ľý. "	IV. "	liii "	(Prid. Ka
80	iii. "	III. "	Pridle Kalend.	(1114.11.
31	Pricië Kalend.	Pridic Kalend.	I LIGIO PLANCINA	•

¹ To the Calenda, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nönäs, İdüs, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (642, III., 2).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendas Aprilis.

The inclosed forms apply to leap-year.

- 644. English and Latin Dates.—The table (643) will furnish the tearner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but it may be convenient also to have the following rule:
- I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:
 - VIII. ante Īdūs Jān. = 13 (8 1) = 18 7 = 6th of January.
- II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:
 - XVIII. ante Kal. Feb. = 31 (18 2) = 31 16 = 15th of January.

Note.—In leap-year the 24th and the 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kal. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only 28 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., IV., III. Kal. Mart., and pridie Kal. Mart.

- 645. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.
- 1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- 2. The hour, being uniformly 1/12 of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

646. The principal Roman coins were the ds, of copper; the essertius, quinarius, denarius, of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period may be approximately given as follows:

As.,	1 to	2 cents.
Sentertius		66
Quinārius	10	46
Denarius	20	44
Aureus = 25 dēnārii	\$5.00	

1. The ds, the unit of the Roman currency, contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time till at last it contained only $\frac{1}{24}$ of a pound.

Note.—An as, whatever its weight, was divided into twelve unclas.

- 2. The sestertius contained originally 2½ asses, the quinārius 5, and the denārius 10; but as the ās depreciated in value, the number of asses in these coins was increased.
 - 3. The ās is also used as a general unit of measure. Thus-
 - 1) In Weight, the as is a pound, and the uncia an ounce.
- 2) In Measure, the ās is a foot or a jūgerum (648, IV. and V.), and the Encia is 1/12 of a foot or of a jūgerum.
 - 8) In Interest, the as is the unit of interest-i. e., 1 per cent. s month.

or 12 per cent. a year; the *ūncia* is $\frac{1}{12}$ per cent. a month, or 1 per cent. a year; and the *sēmis* is $\frac{4}{12}$ per cent. a month, or 6 per cent. a year, etc.

4) In Inheritance, the ās is the whole estate, and the ūncia 1/12 of it: hērēs ex asse, heir of the whole estate; hērēs ex dodrante, heir of 9/12.

- 647. COMPUTATION OF MONEY.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the sēstertius, also called nummus; but four special points deserve notice:
- I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sëstertii, 5 sesterces; viginti sëstertii, 20 sesterces; ducenti sëstertii, 200 sesterces.

- II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii, or mille sestertium.
- III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by milia sēstertiūm (gen. plur.), or (2) by sēstertia:

Duo milia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque milia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces.

Note.—With sestertia the distributives are generally used, as, bina sestertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, decies, vicies, etc. Thus—

Deciës sëstertium, 1,000,000 (10 × 100,000) sesterces; viciës sëstertium, 2,000,000 (20 × 100,000) sesterces.

- 1. Sestertium.—In the examples under IV., sēstertium is treated as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genlitive piural of sēstertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Dectēs centēna mīlia sēstertiūm. Centēna mīlia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sēstertiūm lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension.
- Sometimes sēstertium is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, decies, 1,000,000 sesterces.
- 3. The sign IIS is often used for sestertii, and sometimes for sestertia, or sestertium: Decem HS = 10 sesterces (HS = sestertii). Dena IIS = 10,000 sesterces (HS = sestertia). Decles HS = 1,000,000 sesterces (HS = sestertium).
- 648. Weights and Measures.—The following weights and measures deserve mention:
- I. The Libra, also called As or Pondö, equal to about 11½ ounces avoirdupois, is the basis of Roman weights.
 - 1. The Libra, like the ās ln money, is divided into 12 parts.
 - II. The Modius, equal to about a peck, is the basis of dry measure.
- III. The 'Amphora, containing a Roman cubic foot, equivalent to about seven gallons, is a convenient basis of liquid measure.
- IV. The Roman Pes or Foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches, is the basis of long measure.

Note.—Cubitus is equivalent to 1% Roman feet, passus to 5, and stadium to 625.

V. The Jugerum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre, is the basis of square measure.

V. ROMAN NAMES.

- 649. A Roman citizen usually had three names. The first, or praenomen, designated the individual; the second, or nomen, the gens or tribe; and the third, or cognomen, the family. Thus, Publius Cornelius Scipio was Pūblius of the Scimo family of the Cornelian gens, and Gius Jūlius Caesar was Gāius of the Caesar family of the Julian gens.
 - 1. The praenomen was often abbreviated:

 $A_{\cdot} = Aulus.$ Ap. = Appius.C. = Gāius. Cn. = Guaeus. D. = Decimus. L. = Lūcius.

M. = Māreus. M'. = Mānius. Mam. = Māmercus. $N_{\cdot} = Numerius.$ P. = Pūblius. $Q_{\cdot}(Qu_{\cdot}) = Quintus_{\cdot}$ S. (Sex.) = Sextus.Ser. = Servius. Sp. = Spurius. T. = Titus. Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius.

- 2. Sometimes an agnomen or surname was added. Thus Scipio received the surname Africanus from his victories in Africa; Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus.
- 3. An adopted son took (1) the full name of his adoptive father, and (2) au agnomen in anus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octavius when adopted by Caesar became Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus, Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus.
- 4. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Julius Caesar was simply Julia; of Tullius Cicero, Tullia; of Cornelius Scipio, Cornelia. Three daughters in any family of the Cornelian gens would be known as Cornelia, Cornelia Secunda or Minor, and Cornelia Tertia.
 - 650 Various abbreviations occur in classical authors:

A. D. = ante diem. Aed. = aedīlis. A. U. C. = anno urbis Id. = Idus. conditae. Cos. = consul.Coss. = consules. D. = divus.D. D. = dōnō dedit. Des. = dēsīgnātus. D. M. = diīs mānibus. D. S. = $d\bar{e}$ suő. D. S. P. P. = de sua

 $F_* = filius.$

Imus. pecūniā posuit. māximus. Eq. Rom. = eques Romānus.

rāvit. Imp. = imperator. K. (Kal.) = Kalendae. Leg. = legatus. Non. = Nonae. O. M. = optimus māx-P. C. = patrēs conscrip-Pont. Max. = pontifex P. R. = populus Rō-

mānus. Pr. = praetor.

F. C. = faciendum eu- | Praef. = praefectus. Proc. = proconsul.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quodbonum, fēlīx, faustumque sit.

Quir. = Quirītēs. Resp. = res pública.

S. = senātus.

S. C. = senātūs consultum.

S. D. P. = salūtem dīcit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R. = senátus populusque Romanus. Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plēbis.

- VI. VOWELS BEFORE TWO CONSONANTS OR A DOUBLE CONSONANT.
- 651. On the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, or a double consonant, observe—
 - I. That vowels are long before ns, nf, gn, gm, and generally before j:

conscius, consensus, consul, înscribo, însequor, înstâns, însula, amans, moneus, regens, audiens; confero, conficio, înfelix, înfensus, înfero; beniguus, magnus, regnum, signum, agmen, segmentum, hūjus.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs, or are the result of contraction, are long: 2

exīstimō, amāsse, audīssem, iutrōrsum, intrōrsus, prōrsus, quōrsum, rūrsum, sūrsum, mālle, māllem, nōlle, nōllem, nūllus, ūllus, Mārs, Mārtis.

III. That the long vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives-

1. In āscō, ēscō, and īscō in Inceptives:

gelásco, labásco, acesco, áresco, floresco, latesco, patesco, silesco, viresco, edormisco, obdormisco, seisco, conscisco.

2. In large classes of words of which the following are examples:

erās-tinus, dūc-tilis, fās-tus, ne-fās-tus, flōs-culus, jūs-tus, in-jūs-tus, jūs-tissimus, jūs-titla, mātr-imōnium, ōs-culum, ōs-culor, ōs-tinm, palūs-ter, rās-trum, rōs-trum, rūs-ticus, salīc-tum.

IV. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with long increments in the Genitive;

frūx, lex, lūx, pax, plebs, rex, thorax, vox.

V. That e is long before x in the Perfect Active in exi;

rēxī, rēxit; tēxī, tēxērunt; vēxī, vēximus; dīlēxit, dīlēxērunt.

¹ Itis often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late received special attention from German orthoepists. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the modern languages. (5) the comic poets, and (6) etymology. See Brugmann, 'Grundriss der Vergleichenden Grammatik'; Osthoff, 'Zur Geschichte des Perfects im Indo-germanischen'; Seelmann, 'Die Aussprache des Lateinische Grammatik'; Vanicek, 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der lateinischen Sprache'; Bouterwek und Tegge, 'Die altsprachliche Orthoepie'; Bünger, 'Die lateinische Quantität in positionslangen Silben'; Wiggert, 'Zur lateinischen Orthoepie'; Marx, 'Die Aussprache der lateinischen Vocale in positionslangen Silben'; Schmitz, 'Beiträge'; Ritschl, 'Rheinisches Museum,' vol. xxxi., pp. 481-492; Schöll, 'Acta Societätis Philologae Lipsiënsis,' vol. vi., pp. 71-215; Müller, 'Orthographiae et Prosödiae Latinae Summärlum'; Foerster, 'Rheinisches Museum,' xxxiil., pp. 291-299.

² Though, like other long vowels, they were probably sometimes shortened before certain consonants: dnorum, dnum; nostrorum, nostrum; see VII. below, also 580. II.

³ Introrsum from introversum; Allus from Anulus; Mars from Mavors.

VI. That long vowels occur in the following words and in their deriva-

actič	flictus	nuntius	röstrum
āctitō	fixi	nūpsi	sēscentī
āctor	forma	nūptiae	sēstertius
āctum	förmösus	nūptum	Sēstius
āctus	frāctus	nūtrio	structor
ānxius	früctus	nūtrix	strūctūra
arātrum	illūstris	ōrdior	strūctus
ārdeō	jūnctiŏ	ōr dŏ	strūxi
ātrium	jūnetus	ōrnāmentum	sümpsi
äxilla	jūnxī	ōrnō	sumptus
bēstia	lectito	Ōstia	tāxillus
būstum	lēctor	ōstium	tēctor
calūmnia	lēctus	păstor	tēctus
capēssō	līctor	pastus	trīstis
clāssis	lüctor	pāxillus	ülterior
compsi	lüctus	Pōllið	ültimus
comptus	lūxī	princeps	ültrā
crispus	lüströ	priscus	ūnetič
cunctus	lüstrum	prompsi	ūnctito
cūstōdiō	Mārcus	promptus	unctor
cūstōs	māxilla	propinquus	ūnctūra
dēformis	māximus	punctus	ūnctus
dīxī	mīlle	pūrgō	ūnxi
dūxī	mistus	quārtu8	ūstus
ēbrius	mīxtus '	quinque	ūsūrpō
ēmptiŏ	nārrō	quīntus	Vēstīnus
ēmptus	náscor	rästrum	vēxillum
facessō	Norba	rēctió	vīctus
festus	nōrma	rēctor	vIlla
Fēstus	nōscō	rēctus	Vīpsānius
fēstīvus	nündinae	Rōscius	vixi

VII. That vowels are probably short before nt and nd: amant, amantis, monentis, prüdentis, prüdentia, amandus, regendus,

VIII. That the short vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives: inter-nus, juven-tus, liber-tās, mūnus-culum, super-bus, vir-tūs.

IX. That vowels are generally short in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with short increments in the Genitive: adeps, calix, dux, grex, hiems, judex, nex, nux.

Note.—Vowels before final ns are of course excepted.

- X. That the first vowel in the following endings is short:
- ernus, ernius, erninus; urnus, urnius, urninus: māternus, Liternius, Literninus, taciturnus, Sāturnius, Sāturninus.
- 2. ustus, estus, ester, estis, esticus, estīnus, estris:

robustus, venustus, vetustus, honestus, modestus, campester, silvester, agrestis, caelestis, domesticus, clandestīnus, terrestris.

XI. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

INDEX OF VERBS.

This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention. In regard to compounds of prepositions (344) observe—

- 1. That the elements—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form; see 344, 4-6.
- 2. That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine; see 221.

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I Final & in verbs is sometimes shortened, though rarely in the best writers

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INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Note.—The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Acc. or accus. = accusative; sdis. = adjectives; comp. = composition; compds. = compounds; conj. = conjugation; conjunction; constr. = construction; f. = and the following; gen. or genit. = genitive; gend. = gender; ger. = gerund; loc. or locat. = locative; preps. = prepositions: w. = with.

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly, the numerous exceptions in Dec. III. are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endings. 69-115.

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With Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary. By ALBERT HARKNESS, Ph. D., LL.D., Professor Emeritus in Brown University. Assisted by CHARLES H. FORBES, A. B.,

Professor of Latin in Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass. .

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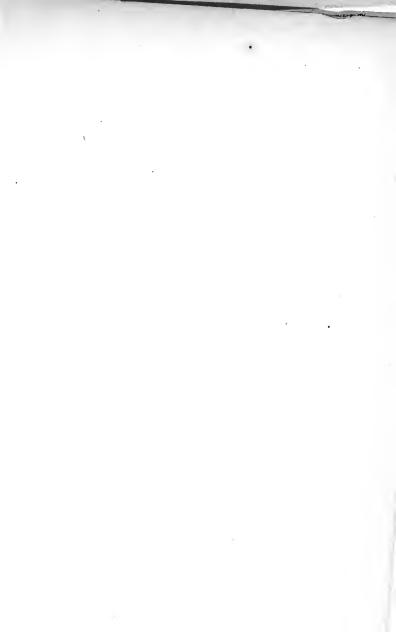
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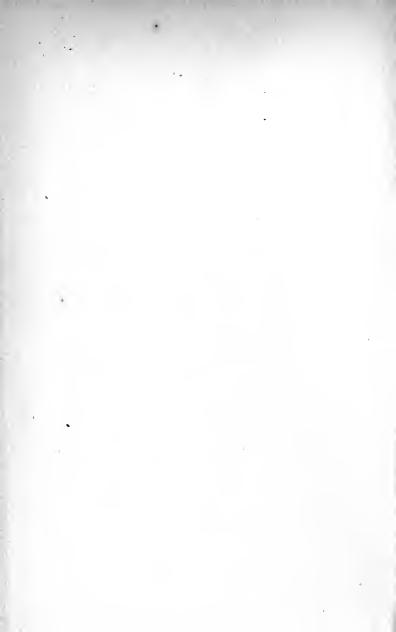
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